

# THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

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NOVEMBER, 1842.

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## ARTICLE XV.

### FRENCH AND AMERICAN COMMERCE.

THE foreign commerce of France has within the last ten years sustained a very remarkable, and almost a regular annual increase. The aggregate of imports and exports has, within that period, been nearly doubled. An important part of this increase is in the trade with the United States, which for several years past, with one or two exceptions, has held the first rank in the tables of French commerce, in the amount both of its exports and imports. In 1840, Great Britain received a greater amount than any country of French products; but in the five preceding years, the United States stood first in amount, by an average of near 60,000,000 of francs, according to the tables of the French custom house. In the amount of imports into France, those from the United States, in 1840, were higher than from any other country, by more than 60,000,000 of francs, and higher than from Great Britain for the five preceding years, by an average of more than 20,000,000. Sardinia, in some of the preceding years, was a competitor with the United States in the amount of products exported to France, but far behind it in the amount of receipts.

We have lately examined a general table of the commerce of France with foreign nations, during the year 1840, forming a large folio volume, in which all the movements of the commerce of the year are exhibited, in its minute details. It is preceded by an analytical summary, and comparison of the commerce of the five preceding years. This analysis has suggested a comparison of the results given in this table, with those which are presented in the annual statements of the commerce of the United States, made by the Treasury Department, and printed by order of Con-

gress. This comparison presents some curious results, which are deserving of attention.

We will first call the attention of the reader to a comparison of the aggregate value of imports into France from the United States, and the exports from France to the United States, during a period of six years, ending in 1840, as they are exhibited in the French and the American valuations respectively. In making this comparison, a slight embarrassment is encountered from the circumstance, that while the French reports are made for successive calendar years, those of the United States are made for annual periods, ending on the 30th of September. This difference defeats, in a great measure, the objects of the comparison when a single year is regarded; but when several successive years are embraced in the comparison, the variance is not material. In giving amounts from the French table, we reduce francs to dollars, at the rate of 19 cents to the franc.

*Value of Imports into France from the United States, in six successive Years.*

*By the French official Valuation.*

1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
\$17,005,000	\$21,052,000	\$22,352,000	\$25,182,000	\$18,848,000	\$33,402,000

*By the United States official Valuation.*

1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
\$19,751,244	\$20,939,000	\$19,690,578	\$15,783,516	\$18,230,949	\$21,834,803

The average of the six years, according to the French valuation, is \$22,976,833, and of the American valuation, \$19,371,349; the former exceeding the latter by \$3,605,484, or 18 1-2 per cent.

In the exports from France to the United States, the difference is much greater, namely:

*French Valuation.*

1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
\$37,440,000	\$45,391,000	\$18,734,000	\$32,433,000	\$38,874,000	\$25,849,000

*United States Valuation.*

1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
\$32,915,276	\$36,615,417	\$22,083,614	\$18,771,797	\$32,531,321	\$17,572,876

Average of French valuation, \$33,121,833; of United States valuation, \$24,915,050; excess of the former, \$8,206,783, or 33 per cent.

The striking differences between the several annual amounts, are doubtless occasioned in part by the difference in the period of the year at which the several statements terminate, the three last months of each year in the American statement being embraced with the three first months of the next succeeding year. The average difference in the exports is doubtless chiefly owing to the difference in the official estimate of cost, and not to any material

difference of quantity. In 1840, for example, the quantity of cotton reported in the French statement as imported from the United States, is 79,000,968 kilograms, or 173,602,129 lbs. The quantity reported by the American statement, as exported in that year from the United States to France, is 179,090,021 lbs. The difference between the two quantities is no greater than may be easily accounted for, by the different periods at which the two statements terminate the year. The valuation of this cotton in the French statement is 142,201,742 francs, or \$27,018,330; and in the American statement \$15,725,686, or a difference of \$11,292,644 in value, that statement which presents the smallest quantity exhibiting the largest value. So great a discrepancy may justly shake the confidence which one would wish to repose in these official statements.

The following table exhibits the amount and value of the principal articles of export from the United States to France in the year ending September 30, 1840, as given in the statement of the Secretary of the Treasury, compared with the amount and value of the same descriptions of articles imported into France in the year ending December 31, 1840, as given in the French official table:

		<i>Exports to France.</i> By U. S. statement.		<i>Imports into France.</i> By the French table.	
Cotton,	lbs.	179,090,021	\$15,725,686	lbs 173,602,129	\$27,018,330
Tobacco,	hhds.	15,640	1,634,976	" 17,887,960	3,553,197
Rice,	tes.	13,602	292,271	" 8,836,713	316,654
Flour,	bbls.	73,925	401,780	bbls. 67,586	400,390
Coffee,	lbs.	2,836,710	280,482	lbs. 3,213,048	235,125
Whalebone,	lbs.	870,659	175,431	" 708,400	220,780
Pot and Pearl Ashes,	lbs.	3,171,840	141,513	" 3,075,879	159,000
Hides, dom. and foreign,			121,999	" 1,678,877	181,070
Indigo,	lbs.	46,186	63,821	" 41,712	57,546
Dyewoods,	lbs.	8,791,142	151,846		106,412
Gold and Silver Coin,			2,194,603		
All other articles,			650,394		1,159,066
Total,			\$21,834,803		\$33,407,572

It will be seen from the above statement, that the valuation given to cotton, tobacco, and other articles of American produce, is given much higher in the French official table than it is in the American statement of exports. This difference must arise, of course, from the French statement being founded on the home value, including the cost of importation, and not on the foreign cost, as is the practice in our treasury statements. This difference of practice, which probably applies to all imports into France, makes a very sensible difference in the nominal comparative amount of the commerce of the two countries. The difference, as

shown by the above comparison, is nearly in the proportion of two to three. When, therefore, it is stated that the aggregate value of imports into France from foreign ports, in the year 1840, was 1,052,300,000 francs, or \$199,937,000, it should be considered that if these imports were valued, as in the American statement, on the basis of their cost in the foreign market, the amount would be less by a third, and about equal to the aggregate exports from the United States in the same year.

Of the above amount of export from the United States to France, \$2,758,344, or about an eighth part, according to the American statement, were shipped in French vessels, and the remaining seven eighths, amounting to \$19,076,559, in American vessels. The number of American vessels, according to the Treasury statement, which cleared from American ports for France, in the year ending September 30, 1840, was 374; their tonnage, 153,128; crews, 5,759. Foreign vessels which cleared for the same ports, 87; tonnage 24,449, crews 1,228. According to the French tables, the number of vessels which entered the French ports, from those of the United States, in 1840, was 464; their tonnage, 177,450; the number of seamen, 7,124. Of these, 375 were United States vessels, of 151,766 tons, with 5,833 seamen; French vessels, 87; tonnage 25,251, seamen 1,263. Foreign to both countries, 2, of 433 tons and 28 men.

In regard to the exports from France to the U. States, the two reports admit of a less exact comparison. As the American report begins with the 1st of October, and ends with the 30th of September, the merchandise embraced in it must have mostly left the ports of France from the 15th of August, 1839, to August 15, 1840, while the French report embraces the shipments made from January 1 to December 31, of the latter year. The variance on this account is the greater, from the fact that the closing part of the year 1840 was a period of more active importation, in the United States, than the same period of the preceding year. A greater discrepancy is, therefore, to be expected between the two reports, in the comparison of the exports from France, than of the imports.

The following table shows the amount and value of the several articles named, exported from France to the United States, in the year ending December 31, 1840, according to the official valuation, and also the amount and value of the same articles, imported into the United States from France in the year ending September 30, 1840, according to the statement of the Secretary of the Treasury:



		<i>Amount and value by the French valuation.</i>		<i>Amount and value by the American valuation.</i>	
Silk Goods,	lbs.	1,342,767	\$13,336,936		\$7,859,871
Woollen Goods,	lbs.	1,293,984	2,467,234		1,178,182
Cotton Goods,	lbs.	892,927	2,062,488		947,243
Muslins, Lawns, and Laces,			858,667		278,548
Wines,	galls.	2,919,998	800,299	gs. 2,978,587	1,025,510
Brandy,	galls.	984,561	639,264	" 1,300,820	899,893
Gold and Silver,					1,120,249
Other articles,			5,697,868		4,263,374
Total,			\$25,802,756		\$17,572,876

From this statement it will be seen, that the valuation of each class of articles, as well as the aggregate value of exports, was much greater by the French tables, than by the statement of our Treasury Department, with the exception of wines and brandy, of which the quantity was less, doubtless in consequence of the want of coincidence in the commencement and termination of the year. It will be observed, in recurring to the statement of the aggregate exports for six successive years, that this excess of the French valuation is not accidental, or confined to this particular year, but that there is a difference of similar amount in every year. So great a difference it is not easy to account for. If the goods imported to this country were subject to heavy ad valorem duties, or to heavy duties of any kind, it might be conjectured that the imports had been fraudulently undervalued, and had been entered by false invoices. But when it is considered, that during a period of nearly ten years, the silk goods, which form the largest item, were entirely free from duty, this reason for the difference fails, especially in reference to this article.

A somewhat greater proportion of the imports to this country, according to the Treasury statement, were shipped in American vessels, than of the exports, namely, \$15,548,778 to \$2,024,101, imported in foreign vessels.

The French tables class the articles of import under the three heads;—of articles necessary for industry, natural objects of consumption, and manufactured objects of consumption; and the articles of export, under the two heads;—of natural products, and manufactured objects. The exports from the United States to France come almost exclusively under the head of natural products, and those from France to the United States under that of manufactured objects. The marked difference, in the class and character of the articles exported from each country, accounts sufficiently for the extent of this commerce, which is founded on the surplus in each, of the productions most wanted by the other.

This commerce, so necessary to France for the supply of the natural productions of the soil, both for the materials of industry,

and for the subsistence of the inhabitants, and so advantageous to the United States, by exchanging its surplus products for the fruits of industry and skill, in a country where labor is exerted for a comparatively small reward, has doubled within the last ten years. In some recent years, it has been much more than double its amount ten years ago. The increase for the last few years has not been so striking in the valuation, as in the quantity of the products exchanged, for the increase of production has greatly diminished their price. In 1831, the quantity of cotton exported from the United States to France was 46,128,357 pounds, valued at \$4,264,839; tobacco, 1,673 hogsheads, at \$151,080; rice, 10,827 tierces, at \$194,915. In 1836, the amount and valuation of these exports to France were, cotton 100,496,994 pounds, at \$16,460,415; tobacco, 6,312 hogsheads, at \$864,351; rice, 10,921 tierces, at \$221,901. In 1841, the amount of exports of these articles to that country was, cotton, 139,394,895 pounds, at \$14,346,630; tobacco, 17,586 hogsheads, at \$1,712,121; rice, 12,130 tierces, at \$260,729.

In 1832, the imports from France amounted in value to \$12,175,658, and in 1841 to \$23,933,812. The silk goods imported in the former year amounted to \$3,232,758, and in the latter to \$11,208,108. The increase, however, has been far from regular, the amount in 1836 having been much larger than in any succeeding year. The increase must, doubtless, be attributed in part to the repeal of duties on silks, and some other articles, which took effect in March, 1833, and to the reduction of duties on wines. But other causes have contributed, probably, more largely to this increase. The increased amount of exports, and the growing habits of extravagance in living, which have increased rapidly with every increase of activity in business, have led to the increased consumption of silk goods, more than the reduction in price. In several years the imports have been excessive, and far exceeded the consumption. The greatest amount was in 1836, when the whole import from France was \$36,615,000, and the silk goods, including veils and shawls and silk and worsted goods, amounted to \$17,940,000. The value of wines imported in that year was \$1,708,000. In no subsequent year have the imports nearly equalled these amounts, and whenever they have approached them, it has been evident that they were far beyond the consumption. It remains to be seen what will be the effect of the restoration of duties on the 1st of September last. It will be likely to check the excessive imports in particular years; but it is to be doubted whether it will greatly diminish the consumption.

## M I S C E L L A N Y .

## BRITISH SETTLEMENTS ON THE WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

IN November, 1840, Dr. Madden, who was formerly a stipendiary magistrate in the West Indies, and subsequently connected with the Mixed Commission at Havanna, received from Lord John Russell instructions to proceed as commissioner to investigate various matters connected with the administration and condition of the British settlements on the West Coast of Africa. His inquiry was to be opened on the Gold Coast. Thence he was to proceed to Sierra Leone and the settlements on the river Gambia, with the view of ascertaining their various advantages and disadvantages. Dr. Madden was instructed by the Colonial Secretary to direct his particular attention to the slave trade, as representations had been made to government by Mr. Maclean, that facilities had been afforded to the slave traders by the magistrates and members of the Council at Cape Coast Castle. He was also to investigate the subject of mortality, and to ascertain whether the destruction of human life which occurred to Europeans in that portion of the world was to be attributed to the general nature of the coast, the peculiar situation of the settlements, or the want of care in respect to sewerage, ventilation, or medical precaution. He was directed to make inquiry as to the prospects of emigration from Sierra Leone to the British West India colonies, and to ascertain whether there were any considerable class of persons disposed to emigrate to these colonies. With these instructions, Dr. Madden sailed to the western coast of Africa. Having previously published in our columns copious extracts from the report of the Select Committee on the Western Coast of Africa, it is now our purpose to lay before the public an abstract of the appendix to that report. The appendix contains many points of extreme interest. In 1827, owing to the heavy expense incurred by Sir Charles M'Carthy in his disastrous war with the Ashantees, the English Government withdrew all the public establishments from the coast, and gave up the forts to the merchants, to be held by them as factories. It was then determined that the forts should be delivered over to the merchants on the following conditions, namely, that the two principal forts of Cape Coast Castle and Accra should remain dependencies of Sierra Leone, that British law should continue in force there, and that the affairs of the forts should be chiefly managed by a committee of merchants of London, appointed by the Government. Five of the merchants were to be formed into a council of magistrates for the purpose of regulating the internal affairs of the forts, &c. The sum of 4,000*l.* per annum was to be granted to the London com-

mittee, to prepare the buildings and garrison the forts. The forts formerly occupied by the African committee were the following: Apponia, Succondee, Commerda, Coromantyn, Tantumquarry, Winebah, and Whydah.

The forts that are now kept up are, Cape Coast Castle, James Fort, Accra, Anamaboe, and Dixcove. Cape Coast Castle is the largest of these forts. The anomalous system of government pursued, and the total absence of a judicial establishment at Cape Coast Castle, are much complained of. The government of this settlement is administered by a President of the Council, a military commandant, and a surgeon. The following are their respective salaries:

President of the Council,	£620
Secretary,	300
Commandant of troops,	200
Surgeon,	200

The troops at Cape Coast Castle are commanded by an European. The native population of Cape Coast Castle is 5,000; European merchants, 12; missionaries, 6; and other white residents, 12 or more. The Europeans occupy about 18 stone houses, valued at 1,000*l.* to 2,000*l.* sterling each. The natives live in "swish" houses made of mud, which becomes hard and durable, and they last as long as the roof resists the rain. The authorities of the Castle exercise power over the whole of the country, from Dixcove to Accra, an extent of 120 miles. Civilization is said to be confined within the limits of the Castle. The whole country about Cape Coast Castle is one great wilderness of verdure. It is only about 15 or 20 miles from the sea-side where civilization is carried on to any extent. From this distance the plantains, yams, cassava, and corn are carried on the heads of the women to market, with their infants slung across their backs. The men treat the women in the most revolting manner, making them do all the drudgery of labor. The consequences of this brutal treatment are, the women suffer from premature exhaustion, decrepitude, and decay. The soil is poor on the sea-side, but four miles inland it is fit for any kind of tropical produce. Mr. Swansey made an attempt to introduce the growth of cotton and coffee, and spent much time and money in the experiment. At his death the cultivation of cotton was neglected. The cotton-trees are now growing wild, and the cultivation is entirely given up. The coffee grown on the western coast of Africa is said to be nearly approaching in quality to that of Mocha, but the heavy duty, 1*s.* 3*d.* per pound, imposed on its importation into England, amounts to an absolute prohibition of its growth. The trade of Cape Coast has considerably increased of late years.

The following tabular statement of the exports and imports for the year 1839, will give some idea of the relative commercial advantages of the different settlements at Cape Coast, Sierra Leone, and Gambia:

	Exports from	Imports into
Cape Coast,	£194,576	£354,460
Sierra Leone,	58,440	103,086
Gambia,	162,789	153,903
	<hr/> 415,805	<hr/> 611,449



Anamaboe appears to be better adapted for trade with Ashantee than Cape Coast. It is situated about 11 miles from the former place. It is stated, that in a few years Anamaboe will have the greater part of the trade with Cape Coast. The population of the town is 4,100. The fort is built on land purchased from the Fantee nation. The mortality among the garrison has been for the last five years 1 in 17. In 1840 the imports amounted to 50,000*l.*; the exports to 60,000*l.* The trade is principally carried on in London and Bristol ships. The climate is the same as at Cape Coast. The rains set in in the month of May, and continue for four months, which months are the most sickly in the year.

Accra is 75 miles to the eastward of Cape Coast. A considerable trade is carried on in this port. The palm oil trade is considerably on the increase. The commandant of the fort, who administers the government, has 100*l.* a year. The native population is 4,000. The only place of worship is one connected with the Wesleyan missionaries.

Thirty-four British and forty-one foreign vessels visited British Accra last year. The soil on the coast is light and sandy, but a few miles inland it is excellent, though there is little cultivation, except of vegetables. The Danes have established a coffee plantation, which is said to produce excellent coffee.

The only difficulty in finding laborers or any species of prædial employment is the ordinary rate of wages, which is only 5*s.* currency a month, and which is a very inadequate remuneration for a man's labor. The gold dust which is brought down from the interior is obtained from the alluvial sands and soil, and is washed down from the mountains composed of granite, gneiss, and quartz. At Cape Coast even the sweepings of the streets are impregnated with gold. These are gathered up and subjected to repeated washings, and the average sum that a whole day's labor at this employment will bring a woman will not exceed 2*d.* or 3*d.* a day. Accra is divided into British, Dutch, and Danish Accra; the Dutch fort and settlement are of less importance than the Danish; the fort of the latter, called Christiansburg, is on a large scale. It has about 80 or 90 guns mounted.

*Dixcove.* This district extends for 40 miles along the sea-coast, and about 30 miles into the interior. The imports and exports are said to be about 20,000*l.* or 30,000*l.* Last year 40 British vessels anchored in the roadstead.

Elmina is the largest and most important of the Dutch forts and settlements on the Gold Coast, and is situated nine miles to the westward of Cape Coast. The town is considerable, and the trade with Ashantee is of some importance. In this portion of the appendix will be found the various suggestions made by the select committee with the view of altering the present system of government on the Gold Coast.

Slavery on the Gold Coast prevails to a great extent among the natives. Those slaves which are chiefly for domestic service, and not for prædial labor, are treated with mildness, and are consequently comparatively happy. The Fantees make no wars now to obtain their slaves; those which they hold are either born in bondage, or are what are called "slaves of the house," and are more leniently treated than others; or

are purchased in the neighboring countries, where the slave-trade is still carried on; or they are taken in "pawn" either for the debts of others or themselves; and, not being able to pay these debts, they lapse into slavery.

The palm-oil trade is carried on to a considerable extent in the river Bonny. The average import of this oil into the port of Liverpool for some years past has been about 12,000 tuns a year, value about 400,000*l*. Three-fourths of this oil are exported from the Bonny and the other outlets of the Niger, and it gives employment to 12 or 15,000 tons of shipping per annum. The price of palm oil, duty paid, varies from 33*l*. to 34*l*. per tun.

The people of Bonny, who have managed to get this trade into their hands, are one of the most barbarous, dishonest, and treacherous races in this part of Africa. Our extensive commercial relations with them for nearly 30 years have not produced any change in their savage customs and superstitions. By all accounts, even by the admissions of the masters of the merchant vessels in this trade, they have not undergone the least improvement.

"The following account of one of their horrid practices was given me, (says the Doctor,) by one of those captains who was himself cognizant of the circumstances he described, in a case of human sacrifice, which occurred in the year 1840: My informant and the other masters of English vessels then at anchor in the Bonny, when they went ashore were frequently in the habit of seeing a little negro girl, about 10 years of age, who had been brought down from the upper country, and placed under the charge of one of the natives at Bonny, previously to being sacrificed by the jujumen or priests of that place. The masters of the British vessels frequently saw the child, and were not ignorant of the intended sacrifice of it. This kind of sacrifice, it seems, is made once in each king's reign. The child must be without spot or blemish. If there is the slightest eruption on the skin, or the smallest scratch, the child is held unfit for sacrifice. Consequently, the person placed in charge of the child is extremely careful to preserve it from hurt or injury, and in the present case seemed in the greatest alarm at all times, lest any accident should happen to it. The little girl was suffered to go about, to do whatever she liked, and no one dared to punish or to contradict her. On the appointed day she was placed on a stage of planks placed across a canoe, and taken by some of the Bonny people over the bar of the river. The men in the canoe kept telling her they were going to send her to see her father and mother; and while engaging her attention in this manner, they slipped the stage on which the poor child was sitting into the sea, and, consigning her to the fetish, they left her to go down. The people in the canoe then pulled ashore as fast as possible; and at the very time this atrocity was suffered to be committed, a tremendous tornado set in, and the Dalhousie Castle, a British vessel loading in the river, was totally wrecked on the bar.

"This event, coupled with the murder that preceded it, made a great sensation at the time. The Bonny men could not bear to speak of it or to be spoken to of it; and the only reason given for this sacrifice was,

that it was 'to do good to Bonny men.' I inquired why those who had seen the child so frequently had not interfered with the King to prevent such an act? If they had been defrauded of a few dollars worth of rum or tobacco, would they not immediately have remonstrated with King Peppel? But this was not a matter of trade, and there was no Englishman there to meddle with it. Surely if there had been any British agent in this place he would not have suffered this act to be committed without remonstrating against its barbarity. But it is not the interests of humanity alone that would seem to require the protection of some consular agent of ours in this place; the interests of our trade demand it likewise. The manner in which the trade is carried on in the Bonny, and in which the natives and the crews of these ships are occasionally treated by the masters, calls for immediate attention.

"The commanding naval officer on this station has been frequently obliged to visit the Bonny, and take cognizance of cases of violence and injustice on the part of these persons, either against the natives or their own people."

*Gambia.* In 1618 a company was formed in England with the view of establishing a trade on the river Gambia. The countries in Upper Gambia were said to be rich in gold, and even as far back as 1618 Timbuctoo was considered the El Dorado of this part of the world. The government of Gambia is now administered by a Lieut. Governor, appointed by the crown. The colony is a dependency of Sierra Leone, and has no council or legislative body. The total imports of this settlement from 1836 to 1840 amounted to an average of £115,892; and the exports to £140,583.

The expenditure for the government, military protection, and for the maintenance of liberated Africans of the Gambia, in the year 1839, amounted to 18,588*l.* 12*s.* 3 1-2*d.* Of this amount the colony defrayed the sum of 6,002*l.* 9*s.* 10 1-2*d.*

The expenditure of the military establishment included in the first amount was 8,481*l.* 1*s.* 5 1-2*d.*; and the expenditure for the liberated African department, included also in it, amounted to 2,238*l.* 0*s.* 2 3-4*d.*

The maintenance of the settlement and its establishments, then, deducting the amount defrayed by the colony, costs Great Britain the sum of 12,586*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* a year.

The amount of revenue collected in the colony from 1816 to 1826, averaged about 2,000*l.* It amounted, in 1839, in fixed revenue, to 7,809*l.* 12*s.*, and incidental revenues to 94*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.* Total, 7,903*l.* 16*s.* 1*d.*

Bissaos is the great stronghold of the Portuguese slave-trade. The island of Bulama is situated 30 miles to the southward of Bissaos, at the entrance of the Rio Grande. It is claimed both by the British and Portuguese. The Nunez lies about 300 miles to the southward of the Gambia. A great deal of legal and illegal trade is carried on in this river.

*Sierra Leone.* The general aspect of the country in the immediate vicinity of this colony, and the external appearance of Freetown, convey to the mind of a stranger an idea of salubrity. The buildings are large,

the streets wide and regular; the roads are excellent, and the markets are abundantly supplied. The streets of Freetown, Dr. Madden remarks, resemble those of Washington.

Between each row of houses there are large intervals of unoccupied space, or of the sites of former houses now encumbered with ruins. And the wide intermediate space between the sides of the streets, which seem laid out for the crowded thoroughfares of some mighty city, presents no appearance of life or business; the grass grows in the centre and flourishes there, even in the principal streets; its verdure is, however, by no means refreshing to the sight of the European passenger, for no wilderness can appear more dreary than the deserted streets of an inhabited town, where silence reigns, and over which sickness or some impending calamity seems to hang.

The stores of the European merchants have no aspect of business. The only stir and bustle of a thriving trade that seems to exist is in those where rum of the most pernicious quality is sold to the negroes; and in the stalls of the latter, where guns and gunpowder, tobacco, spirits, hardware, coarse cloths, and handkerchiefs are retailed to their countrymen, and to the natives from the adjoining countries.

From 10 o'clock in the morning till 5 in the evening, a white man is seldom seen abroad; at the latter hour the race-course and the promenade on the battery are frequented by equestrians and pedestrians; and perhaps no circumstance that strikes the attention of a stranger makes so strong an impression on his mind as the general expression he observes of languor and debility in the looks of every individual he meets of European birth. (with perhaps, two or three exceptions,) in the colony. The young and the old, the acclimated even, as they are deemed, who have had their seasoning either in one fever, or the periodical return of that malady, and have survived these attacks, show plainly enough the baneful influence of the climate, which leaves the features without vivacity, the frame without vigor, and the whole constitution apparently deficient in vitality.

Those who are not absolutely ill, are always ailing; in fact, all the white people seem to belong to a population of invalids. The sallowness of their complexion, the listlessness of their looks, the attenuation of their limbs, the instability of gait, and the feebleness of the whole frame, that are so observable in this climate, are but too evident signs, even where organic disease has not yet set in, that the disordered state of the functions which goes under the name of impaired health exists, and in none is it more painfully evident than in the general appearance of the European women and children in this colony. Indeed, to the latter the climate is allowed to be almost universally fatal. I desire to account, says Dr. Madden, for the diversity of opinion that prevails on the subject of the advantages and disadvantages of this colony; and while the commodiousness of its harbor, the beauty of the scenery around it, and the verdure and elevation of the mountains that form the background of the capital, are with many the subject of admiration, it is necessary to notice the effects of the unwholesome atmosphere, which is wafted over from the Bullom shore, and hemmed in by these mountains, varying in



height from 2,000 to 2,600 feet above the level of the sea, and to consider how that atmosphere is clouded with the exhalations that arise there from the decay of vegetable matter which is constantly going on. Freetown is represented to be placed in a focus of pestilential vapors. Dr. Madden conceives that the advantages of the position of Sierra Leone for trade have not been developed to the extent which might have been anticipated or expected. This settlement was founded originally to provide a place of refuge or support for a number of distressed Africans who had been taken from their own country, and had some knowledge of European manners and customs, and to try the experiment of making them instrumental to the introduction of civilization into the country they were then to colonize. In 1787 the first cession of territory was made by the native priests to the British Sovereign. This tract of land was made over to the Sierra Leone Company. In 1796, Governor Macaulay obtained from a native chief, King Tom, an additional quantity of land. In 1819 and 1824 large portions of country were purchased by the British Government. Previous to this formation of the settlement in 1787, the Portuguese had an establishment here for their trade in slaves. In 1787, about 400 negroes who had served in the American war, and 40 white females, who accompanied them, through the exertions in their behalf of Mr. Granville Sharpe and some others, were sent to Sierra Leone, and located there. In 1823 it was reported that only six of these negroes were left in the colony. In 1791, 1,831 negroes from *va Scotia* were brought to Sierra Leone. These were promised by the agent of the Sierra Leone Company 30 acres of land, 20 for the men, and 10 for each wife. On this point a great breach of faith was committed with the negroes, and the consequence was they gave up the cultivation of the land. In 1800, 550 maroons, natives of Jamaica, settled in the island. The jail at Freetown is said to be very badly constructed, and ill governed. There is no classification of the prisoners. Owing to the crowded state of the jail, and want of proper ventilation, confinement in it for any length of time is injurious to the health and morals of the prisoners. Dr. Fergusson, staff-surgeon of the 3d West-India regiment, a gentleman of color, pointed out one very loathsome disease, which is engendered in this jail, which attacks the membranes of the eyes, nose, and mouth.

The total population of the colony is 40,060 : colored population, males 21,754, females 17,280 ; white population, males 75, females 24 ; aliens, males 927, females none.

"The annual expenditure of the Church Missionary Society was, in 1840, 6,852*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.* ; that of the Wesleyan Society for that year was 1,483*l.* 0*s.* 5*d.* ; and in addition to this sum, 500*l.*, raised among the members in the colony, and expended in it. Of the Church Missionary Society there were in 1840, 7 ordained clergymen, 10 European laymen, native laymen 23, and one female teacher. The number of the Wesleyan ministers was 3, and 22 native teachers, exclusive of the separate ministers and preachers of the African Methodist Society.

"There are 16 places of worship of the Church of England in the colony, one of these, in Freetown, capable of containing 600 or 700 people, and 39 Dissenting places of worship ; and the number of persons

generally attending all of them about 9,000. The number of baptisms in the different districts in the year 1839 was 464; the number of burials 241; and the number of marriages 542. It is a curious circumstance, that while at Sierra Leone the number of baptisms was nearly double that of the burials in the year 1839, at the island of St. Mary's, on the Gambia, in that year the number of deaths was just double that of the births, and the number of marriages not one-half of the number of baptisms; while at Sierra Leone the marriages exceeded far the baptisms in that year. The total number of children educated in Sierra Leone is, in proportion to the population, about one fifth; while in the Gambia, the total number of children in the four missionary schools of the whole colony, namely, 701, is in proportion to the entire population, consisting of 5,000 souls, about one seventh."

The expenditure incurred for the government and maintenance of this colony, and the mixed courts of justice established in it, (exclusive of the expenditure for the maintenance of our squadron for the suppressing of the slave trade, and the payment of head-money on the captured slaves,) amounts to 89,468*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.* Of the above amount of annual expenditure for Sierra Leone, the colony itself defrays the sum only of 6,539*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* The fixed revenue, however, of Sierra Leone, amounts to about double that sum, namely, to 13,162*l.* 8*s.* 2 1-4*d.*, and the incidental revenue to 236*l.* 13*s.* 1 1-2*d.*, making in all the sum of 13,399*l.* 1*s.* 3 3-4*d.*

The government of the colony is administered by a governor and legislative council, presided over by the governor, and composed of the chief justice, queen's advocate, colonial secretary, the staff surgeon, and commissary judge. This pernicious climate has proved most destructive to those who have been sent out to the colony as governors. From 1825 to 1830 the deaths of the governors averaged more than one a year. General Turner went out in February, 1825; he lived only 12 months. General Campbell survived only 12 months; Colonel Denham 6 months; Colonel Lumley lived only 6 months after his appointment; Sir John Jeremie died of fever four months and five days after his arrival in the colony as governor.

Mr. Madden discusses the question of the practicability and expediency of inducing the negroes of the Kroo country to emigrate to the West Indies for the purpose of being employed there in agricultural labor. On this subject, he states the following curious facts:

"For the purpose of ascertaining the matter, I took advantage of a visit to the Kroo coast to assemble the chiefs and head people of the towns of Grand Sesters and Cape Palmas, and lay the question of the proposed advantages of emigration to the West Indies fairly and fully before them. I ought to state that my instructions applied only to the removal of negroes from our settlement on the coast; but for the reasons assigned, and the purpose of really knowing what prospect there was of ever being able to effect an emigration from the countries of the natives with safety to the parties and advantage to the colonies, I took the responsibility on myself of making these inquiries, and the following is the result of them:

"The negroes, at the first opening of the subject, expressed extreme repugnance at the idea of going to the West Indies; they said it was not the fashion of Krooman's country to go so far away from their own land; that they would not go to a country where the people were slaves; that they did not like West India country; that they never would be let to come back to their own country. After taking a good deal of pains to inform them what the actual distance was to these colonies; what the present condition of the negroes was there; what the wages were which negroes earned in those places; and at what reasonable periods they might stipulate to return, and with what advantage to their interests they might possibly return; I suggested to them that if they had any idea of emigrating there, provided they thought well of the advantages pointed out, they might send three or four of their head men from Sierra Leone with some vessel from that colony, to visit the West Indies and form an opinion for themselves, whether they would feel justified in recommending their countrymen to go to these islands as free laborers, who might count on the sum at least of a dollar and a half a week without deductions from their wages; and, moreover, that if they made such an application, I thought it was probable that the governments in those colonies would pay all the expenses of the persons they sent in the first instance, to see whether their going to those colonies would be likely to be beneficial to them or not. This proposition seemed to them reasonable, and several ultimately said, they would consent to it, provided they would be sent to the colonies in a King's ship, and provided they would be allowed to return, at the very furthest, after three years' stay in these colonies.

"I then stated that it would be requisite for their wives and families to accompany them, but this proposition was met with a loud and general expression of determination on the part of the chiefs not to let one of the latter accompany the men who went. One aged chief asked if the people who came from England to their country were married, and if so, what was the reason they were not permitted to take their wives with them; was it not because it pained their hearts when they were a long time separated from them, and this caused them to return as soon as they could to their own country? For that reason they, the chiefs, would never let the people of the Kroo country take their wives with them when they went away, because they were obliged by this means to return home, which otherwise they would not do. They would not listen to any argument against this view. In short, the women were to be kept as hostages for the return of their husbands to their country. In fact, no emigration was to be expected except on conditions which would defeat the object of the planters in the West Indies, and injure the morals of the negroes settled in them. It was one of the leading instructions to the superintendent of the liberated Africans in Cuba, from the Colonial Minister, to pay special attention to the equalization of the sexes in the distribution of the negroes, as it had been found in our colonies, that where that circumstance had not been attended to, the effect on the morals of the community had been very injurious. In another point of view, it seems to me it would be questionable enough whether

effects quite as injurious might not arise from the introduction of a new Pagan population into colonies emerging from ignorance and moral darkness into religious enlightenment and civilization.

"The Kroomen are all Pagans; neither the Christian nor the Mahomedan religion has ever made the slightest progress in their country; and there is not, I believe, a single instance known of a Krooman in Sierra Leone having been converted to the Christian faith.

"I took some trouble to make myself acquainted with their religious opinions, and elsewhere their own replies to queries on these subjects will be found. It will be seen that, like all the people of Africa, the propitiation of evil spirits, under the various anomalous forms of Fetish observances, is the only species of worship that is offered to supernal power, and that to deprecate the wrath of beings who have the power and the will to do injury to men, is the great object of their religious homage to the devils who preside over human affairs.

"These people, like all the other Pagan Africans I have met with, have an obscure idea of the existence of one great Deity, by whom the whole world was created, and to whom all good men go when they die. They have an ill-defined belief in the goodness of that Deity, but they believe his care or providence does not extend to the human race in this world; the government of it is delegated to the evil spirits, so that they offer no homage to the Deity, but only seek to ingratiate themselves into the favor of his ministers.

"They make no human sacrifice in honor of the Fetish divinities, like the Pagans of Dahomey, the Bonny, Ashantee, and Appolonia; they frequently sacrifice animals, however, to them, and this sacrifice of shedding blood and offering up the flesh of the slaughtered animal prevails over the whole regions of Africa, wherever Paganism has been found. I think the re-introduction of the devil-worship of these poor Africans into our colonies would in time seriously impede the efforts we have been making to christianize the negroes in these colonies, and unsettle the ideas of those whose fathers, at least, have been born and bred in Paganism. The other conditions of being taken out in King's ships, or, as they mean, under the protection of them, and of being sent back to their own country at the expiration of three years, I consider would be serious impediments to the removal, and objectionable to the pecuniary views that are entertained on the subject of their employment.

"And these objections and difficulties apply to the removal of the only class of Africans who can be found on the whole coast of Africa who would have sufficient energy of mind, love of acquiring money, and willingness to work hard for the sake of hoarding up their earnings, to emigrate to those distant colonies." — *Abridged from the London Times.*



## KOSSEIR, IN EGYPT.

EXTRACT from a letter from Doctor Labat to the Editor of the *Paris Journal des Debats*, dated at Kosseir, an Egyptian port on the Red Sea, June 1st:

"After a long excursion on the Red Sea, which enabled me to visit the coasts of Arabia-Petrea, the magnificent sites of Mount Sinai, the Gulf of Acaba, and the shores of the Hedjar, quite to the borders of Arabia Happy, here I am, at last, arrived at Kosseir. This city, situated at the entrance of a desert valley, which extends from the Red Sea to the nearest point of the Nile, is with regard to Upper Egypt, what Suez is to Lower Egypt. It is by this double route, that all the commerce of Egypt with Arabia and India is carried on.

"Kossier is placed at the foot of a hill, the summit of which is occupied by a fortress flanked by four towers, and furnished with twenty pieces of artillery. Among these we found a French howitzer, bearing for an inscription 'Valence,' and dated 'Messidor, year of the Republic III.' This instrument, left by our army, has thus become a monument of Egyptian conquest.

"The fortress of Kossier, built by order of the Sultan Selim, and repaired by the French, protects the city against all attacks by land or sea. It was in fact cannonaded without success for three days by the English frigates, in hope of expelling our garrison. The brave Donzelot, who commanded the place, compelled the English to reëmbark after they had suffered considerable loss. The streets of Kosseir are almost all straight, and very neat, which forms a contrast to the general want of cleanliness of the Egyptian cities. But what gives a very gloomy appearance to it, is the uniform grayish aspect which is presented by the houses being built of unbaked bricks. Some rare dwellings, constructed of stone, or burnt brick, are not sufficient to take off that monotonous look, which always exists in the Egyptian villages. There are no remarkable buildings, except the governor's great house, which is situated on the sea-shore. Its architecture, which is in the Constantinople style, is not without elegance. The population of Kosseir amounts to about 2,000 souls, including the Turkish garrison, composed of a few cannoniers and some Arnauts. There is no Catholic Christian except our consular agent. The English agent is a rich Turkish merchant, who has much influence in the country. There is nothing to be seen but sands and deserts in the neighborhood of the city, which circumstance accounts for the rarity of rain, and the absence of all water-courses in the vicinity. The water consumed by the inhabitants is brought from a distance of several leagues. That furnished by the wells of the citadel and of the city is of a very brackish nature, and filled with sulphate of lime. An Artesian well would be of immense advantage in this place. The port forms a curve, sufficiently concave to receive fifty or sixty ships. It is shaded on the west by the hills on the coast, which are the beginnings of the high mountains we perceive in the horizon. A considerable bank of madrepores, stretching out three hundred metres into the sea,

protects it from the north wind. It consequently remains open only to the southwest winds, which are not much to be dreaded on the Red Sea. The bottom of the port is sandy, and furnishes good anchorage. In order to obviate the inconveniences which result from the absence of a quay for landing, Mehemet Ali has caused to be built a fine landing place, which reaches out into the sea so far that small ships can come up to it. It was necessary formerly, in discharging vessels, for the waterman to go down into the water, in order to transport the merchandise to the shore. This point of the Red Sea furnishes fish in such abundance, that it is said the ancient inhabitants made of it their only food, which gave them the denomination of Ichthyophagi, bestowed upon them by the geographers of antiquity. One of these colonies was more particularly designated by the name of Chelonophagi, on account of the great number of tortoises consumed by them. After having eaten the flesh, they made use of the large shells as bucklers, and employed others in the manufacture of different articles of furniture and utensils.

"When the French army arrived at Kosseir, the environs of the city were still occupied by tribes of fishermen, who fled at the approach of our soldiers. It is stated on this subject, in the great work published by the Egyptian scientific committee, that the cottages of these fishermen were, like those of their ancestors, covered with tortoise shells. In the valley of Kosseir we found also the tribe of the Ababdehs, who are the direct descendants of the Troglodytes. They were so named because they inhabited caverns. Their manners have not changed. They have still the singular costume, which consists in a cotton or woollen cloth, that they wind about the body, and bring back over one of the shoulders; their long hair, which contrasts with the shorn heads of the other Mussulmans, which are always covered, the strangeness of their language, their passionate taste for hunting, the rapidity of their long excursions in the desert, all which peculiarities agree with the accounts we have of them from the historians of antiquity, and which M. Dubois Aimee, one of our Egyptian literati, has taken occasion to confirm.

"At the northwest of the height which overlooks Kosseir, we see a considerable number of little excavations, which still serve as a refuge to the Ababdehs, who are brought for purposes of business to the city, where they encamp temporarily, with their camels and flocks. This colony, which has remained until this day out of the pale of civilization, lives entirely isolated from the neighboring tribes, with which they have never consented to mingle. It has nothing in common with the Arabians but the Mahomedan religion, which it has not accepted without allying with it some of their ancient idolatrous practices. These modern Troglodytes, whom I was able to visit without the least danger, thanks to the firman granted me by the viceroy, number still several thousands of individuals spread over the vast surface of uncultivated country which reaches from the Nile to Kosseir. It is truly curious to see, after so many ages have passed away, these miserable colonies, which remain almost unknown, still preserving their manners and their primitive habits.

"At the north of Kosseir is discovered at the distance of some miles, a considerable heap of ruins, called Kadima, or old Kosseir. We saw

there no vestige of an ancient monument, but only the remains of a great city, which must have had a population of about twenty thousand souls. The port of this city, formerly large and deep, is almost entirely filled up by the encroachments of corals and madrepores. According to M. Gosse-  
lin and several other geographers, Kadima must have been the ancient Myos-Hormos. M. D'Anville, however, maintains that this ancient commercial station was more towards the north. However this may be, Myos-Hormos was for Egypt of the old time, what Kosseir is to modern Egypt. I will only add, that the commerce on the Red Sea was formerly very considerable. On this part of the coast there were several other very important cities. Among these were the celebrated Berenice, (Portus Albus,) and Philoterus Portus. Still more at the south was Sucho (Soakin) and Ptolemais (Theron.) But it was principally from Myos-Hormos that the opulent city of Thebes received the rich products of Arabia and India. To give an idea of the extent of this commerce, it is enough to quote this passage of Strabo, (Book 2d,) where he says, "that in his time a fleet of an hundred and twenty sail left Myos-Hormos to go to the Indias." It was also from this port that the fleet of Ælius Gallus sailed on his expedition to Arabia Felix, where the Romans possessed the important city of Aden, which they designated as Portus Romanus. At this epoch, numerous caravans of camels transported in some days the merchandise of Coptus to Myos-Hormos, whence they returned towards the borders of the Nile, with the products of the Red Sea, Arabia, and India. We see on different points of the route the ruins of ancient Grecian Egyptian stations, among which some wells, still in good preservation, are made use of by the caravans. They follow at the present time, the same route, except on leaving Coptos, which was entirely destroyed by Dioclitian. They now take their departure from Kenne, which is some leagues distant. These convoys, which effect their passage in three days and a half, carry daily to Kosseir considerable quantities of corn, barley, meal, beans, lentils, sugar, oil, &c., not only to supply the wants of the city, but also for exportation to Moilah, Sambo, Gedda, Confuda, Hodeida, Moka, Massaouh, and especially for Medina and Mecca. Lately several consignments of corn have left this port for the Isle of France, and other parts of the Indian Ocean. The merchandise destined for Arabia is exchanged for the coffee of Yemen, the gum, incense, spices of all kinds, India cottons and cachemeres. England begins to take part in these exchanges, in which she will find in future great advantage. Kosseir, however, whatever may be its commercial prosperity, will be in its relations to India nothing more than a second, so to speak, of Suez. This latter port, by its greater vicinity to Europe, and from the possibility of establishing communications with the Mediterranean by renewing the ancient canal of Ptolemy, will always continue to be of greater importance than Kosseir. In the present state of things, the Arabian ships cannot overcome, like those of Europe, the difficulties of navigation which occur at the north of the Red Sea at certain periods of the year. Kosseir, beside its immediate openings into Said and Nubia, would offer them also not less important communications with Lower Egypt, as well as the Mediterranean.

As may be imagined, England could not neglect the numerous advantages presented by this commercial station. The consular agent, therefore, seconds with all his efforts the transportation to the Nile of travellers and goods, which the steamboats from India land at Kosseir, before going to Suez. We have seen arrive in immediate succession merchant ships from Bombay, from Calcutta, and even from London. Some of these vessels, after having terminated their voyage at Suez, afterwards return to complete their lading of corn at the port of Kossier, where Mehemet Ali has given the most formal orders to assist all commercial relations. The impulse once given, the French government has not delayed to appoint a consular agent to give assistance to those of our citizens who reside in this region. The same has been done with regard to Kenne, situated, as I observed, at the extremity of the valley of Kosseir, corresponding to the Nile.

"We possess at Thebes, which is some leagues below, an advantage which we cannot pass over in silence. It is a great house, which our government has built on the colonnade of the temple. This house, after having been used by the officers of the Luxor, who were employed to transport the obelisk to Paris, remained at the disposition of our consul general at Alexandria, who kept there a guardian or protector. It is a foresight for which we ought to render thanks where it is due. Moreover, strangers and natives receive there equally a cordial hospitality. But according to a rule wisely established, whoever presents himself at this consular station, the keeper has orders to exhibit no flag but that of the French nation. I shall leave here in a few days for the cataracts of the Nile. My next letter will be dated at Aboukir, in Nubia.

"Yours, &c. &c."

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#### THE MINES OF ALMADEN, IN SPAIN.

THESE mines of quicksilver, in New Castile, have been worked for at least twenty-two centuries, as Theophrastus speaks of their renowned cinnabar; and the Spanish engineers of the present day have declared that their ascertained contents are still so great, that they will afford a yearly supply at the present rate of 22,000 quintals for at least five hundred years to come. One of the most recent improvements consists in a return to ancient workings in the grand valley of Sisapo, described by Pliny, (that of Valde-Azogues,) where the Romans burrowed superficially, like so many rabbits, (not knowing how to extract the water if they sank deeper,) until they pulled down the side of the hill, and completely interrupted their own scratchings. After thirty years of toil, frequently interrupted by war and want of funds, the present miners have hit upon the original and almost untouched vein of fourteen feet in breadth, and here also, as well as in Almaden and Almadenejos, their works are in full activity. They are carried on in a very old-fashioned style, partly from the natural difficulties connected with the locality, partly from the



unhealthy nature of the work, and partly from the great disinclination to change old customs, which marks the Spanish character so strongly. The isolation of the site may be judged of from the fact, that the roads around are in the same condition that they were in in the days of Theophrastus, that is to say, in a perfect state of nature, and that the metallic produce is borne to Seville, a journey of between three and four days, *a lomo*; that is, literally on the loins of mules, for carriages of any kind are yet an unheard-of invention in those rocky regions. The injurious effects of the labor on the health of the miners are, indeed, serious and lamentable. Formerly condemned felons were employed in great numbers there, and even paid highly to induce them to exert themselves; but they did little excepting mischief, setting fire to the mines in 1752, and discrediting the honest calling of the miner. The administrators long and loudly complained of their inefficiency, and of the want of willing, active, industrious hands to carry on the work. The measures adopted, in consequence, by the arbitrary government of that period, were very characteristic of the system which reduced Spain to the wreck of an empire, without ships, colonies, commerce, or a dollar in her treasury; the free and guiltless peasantry of the surrounding districts were impressed and driven perforce to labor in the mines in society with the felons! This could not last, for human sympathies are stronger than the caprices of courtly political economists. The peasantry gradually continued to run away and leave the mines to the care of the felons and the barbarous government that knew not how to avail itself of the labor of free men. The succeeding Ministry made, however, a "great step in reform." Finding that the neighboring peasantry were, forewarned by experience, abandoning all connection with the mines from the dread of forced labor, attempts at colonization were made, and individuals were induced to come from Arragon by the promise of high wages and certain valuable privileges, such as exemption from taxation, both local and public, from service in the army, &c. The Arragonese, however, finding themselves attacked by the serious and unknown diseases induced by working in the mercurial vapors, speedily abandoned their labors and privileges and returned home again. The felons were, therefore, still kept in requisition until the year 1801, when they were shipped off to the *presidio* at Ceuta, exactly forty-nine years after they had set fire to the mines, and stopped the workings for a couple of seasons; during which extensive era (comprising two generations,) they had been endeavoring, unsuccessfully, to convince the government that they were the most unprofitable laborers in existence. At length the revolution came, and with it glimmerings of the unprofitableness of contending with nature. Now, the mines are all worked on the principle of free labor, well paid and willingly exerted, under difficulties and trials to health almost incredible.

The following passages, taken from a memoir written by Don Rafael Cabanillas, late Director-General of Mines, in 1837, respecting the perils of health and life to which the miners are exposed, will be read with interest:

"As these mines have augmented in extension, and their annual produce in mercury has gone on increasing successively, the population of Al-

maden and Almadenejos no longer suffice for all the works, subterranean and superficial. These daily require three thousand individuals; and further, when there is a necessity to give at times an active impulse to the excavations, furnish employment to a crowd of strangers, attracted by high wages from the various provinces of the kingdom, and even from Portugal, but generally for short periods; for as soon as these experience any injury in their health, they return home to reëstablish it. (The latest returns give a total of above five thousand individuals daily employed about these mines during the working season, including those employed in bringing wood for fuel and subterraneous works, and those engaged in the carriage of the quicksilver to Seville.)

"The inhabitants of Almaden, Almadenejos, and Chillon are, however, those who sustain the mines, and in the unhappy epochs in which political occurrences diverted the funds which ought to have gone to pay the laborers, had it not been for the constant and willing assistance of the resident miners, the entire plan of operations must have been stopped, and the administrators totally ruined. The honest miners, however, remained steadily at work, pumping, cutting out, and building up, as usual, although the government was, at times, totally unable to pay up what they had earned with so much risk of life and positive injury to health. The government, however, had, so far back as 1780, received satisfactory proofs that those who occupied themselves alternately in field works and under ground preserved their health better than those who remained altogether engaged in the mines; and liberally appropriated to their free use the estate of Castilseras, in the vicinity, secularized from the order of Calatrava. This grant produced the most rapid and favorable effects on the health of the mining population, enabling them to augment at once the sustenance, the numbers, and the comforts of the little Pueblos. Notwithstanding, every year many individuals are rendered absolutely unfit for further work; and as the excavations are constantly extending, the sufferers must be replaced by others. The truth is, that both in Almaden and Almadenejos, deaths and wounds are unhappily very frequent, and bodies may be seen brought forth from them more bloody and disfigured than can be found, perhaps, on a field of battle. Amongst the youth of these pueblos may be seen several blinded, lamed, or deprived of an arm or leg, the result of some misfortune in the mines. Strong convulsions, which keep the sufferers in continual agitation, are very general, almost depriving the patients of strength to walk, or power to eat, and usually terminating in chronic maladies, disabling them for life. Some fall into a state of paralysis, others suffer in their intellectual faculties, experiencing a species of stupor, which frequently becomes permanent. These unhappy patients, afflicted with an incurable and constant drowsiness, are named *Modorros* by the inhabitants. Thialism and spitting of blood, and other diseases of the lungs, are also very common; and in general, all those who dedicate themselves to the labors of these mines lose their strength, and their lives are never long, afflicted as they are with some one or more of those maladies in a less or greater degree. The children too, who, from their early years, devote themselves to such labors, thrive badly; many become infirm or disabled even before they

pass the age of boyhood, and the constitutions of all are weak and delicate. In short, the mining population of Almaden may be generally distinguished by their stunted and discolored aspect; and whether this be caused by their labors in the mines, or the effect of the fumes of the furnaces, or perhaps of both at once, certain it is that they present a most pitiable spectacle to all beholders."

A more recent report, presented by Don Joaquim del Bayo last year, gives a detailed statement of all the miners inutilized through various causes during the five years ending 1839. These amount to 267 wounded, 12 died in the mine from serious accidents, 14 mutilated, 255 disabled by long work, and 130 died early through convulsions, &c.; total, 522, out of about 4,000 actively employed within the mines, during a space of five years. This engineer states that exactly the same proportion of disasters and deaths takes place in the deep mines of Saxony.

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THE FRENCH POST-OFFICE.

SINCE the important change which has been made in England in the rate of postage, there has been a good deal of discussion in France on the question of a reduction there. It has not been proposed to carry the reduction to the extreme to which it has been carried in England, but to limit it to such rates as may be anticipated to secure the same amount of income as at present, and at the same time greatly to increase the public accommodation. The following facts have been made public in the course of this discussion:

The post-office expenses in France for 1841 amounted to 20,434,582f. In this sum was comprised the cost of building a certain number of steam-packets to run between Marseilles and Alexandria and Marseilles and Corsica, which came to about 600,000f. During the year the receipts of the Post-office, according to the general account of the Minister of Finances, amounted to 48,142,691f. The produce of the general postage of letters was put down in the gross revenue at 39,900,776f.; of the rural service, or cross-posts, at 2,402,632f.; the duty of 5 per cent. on remittances of money at 1,004,176f.; the charge on the transport of specie and other treasure in gold and silver by the Mediterranean packets at 183,830f.; and the rest was derived from the fares of passengers by the mail-coaches and packets, the charge on the conveyance of foreign letters, and sundries, composed of fines, sale of the Post-Office Guide, and other items. From this statement it will be seen that the net revenue of the post-office is about 22,000,000f. For 1842 the gross produce has been estimated at 45,180,000f., and the expenses at 21,060,000f., leaving a benefit of 24,180,000f.; consequently in any reform of the system to be attempted, the object of preserving to the state a revenue of 20,000,000f. must be kept in view. The reduction made in England in the rate of postage has caused a very considerable diminution in the

revenue. This was because they went from one extreme to the other. It is true that the number of letters has greatly increased. In 1839, previously to the reduction, there were distributed within the kingdom of Great Britain 75,469,000 letters, and in 1841 they amounted to 196,500,000, being an increase of 121,031,000 letters by the reduction of the postage. But this progress, however rapid and great, has not been sufficient to make up the deficit occasioned by the change, and it is not probable that the receipts will ever come up to what they were previous to 1840, when the alteration was made. Unquestionably, the advantage gained by the public is an ample compensation for the loss sustained by the Treasury. Nevertheless, if it be possible to reconcile the two interests, it would be so much the better. In order to show what ought to be done, we must have further recourse to figures. Our rates of postage are calculated on 11 distances. The shortest is 40 kilometres, (25 miles,) and the longest 900 kilometres, (562 miles.) All letters weighing 7 1-2 grammes, (quarter of an ounce,) pay for the first distance 2 decimes, (about 4 cents,) and for the longest 11 decimes, (about 11d.) For every distance beyond the shortest, an additional decime is charged, and if the distance exceeds the 900 kilometres, only 2 additional decimes are charged, however far it may be. Each post-office is considered as the centre of a circle of distances. Taking the progressive charge of postage by weight, a letter weighing between 7 1-2 grammes and 10 grammes pays a postage and a half; from 10 grammes to under 15 grammes two postages; and so an additional half-postage for every excess of 5 grammes. According to statements made by the Postmaster-General, the number of letters diminish in proportion to the length of the distances. Thus, out of the total of the 78,000,000 of letters sent in 1841 within the kingdom, upwards of 24,000,000 were destined to go no further than the shortest distance, producing an income of 5,147,775f.; in the second distance, about 16,000,000 letters, producing 5,093,051f.; in the third, 13,000,000 letters, 5,546,585f. Beyond the 11th distance the number of letters was only 80,000, and the produce 90,000f. According to this a reduction of the postage would most materially affect the intermediate distances, and create the greatest reduction of produce. By adopting the lowest rate of two decimes for the general charge, the letters sent within the first distance would evidently remain the same in number and produce. In the second distance the number of letters must be increased by one third; and, in the third, doubled, in order to produce the present amount of revenue. This, we think, would occur. For the distances which pay 6, 7, or 8 decimes, (6d., 7d., or 8d.,) there must be a three and four-fold increase in the correspondence to bring the receipts up to the same amounts. As the correspondence in England has nearly tripled itself in two years, it is not impossible that it may make the same progress in France. There can be no doubt that letters now paying 80c. 1f., 1f. 10c., and 1f. 20c., would increase to 10 times their present number if they were to be charged only 2 decimes; and it may be deemed certain that the revenue would sustain no diminution even in the greatest distances. The alteration we propose, therefore, could not be attended with the same consequences as in England: first, because we admit a general charge



double the amount of that in Great Britain; and, secondly, because our present rates of postage are much lower than were those in that country previously to 1840; for a single letter, in France, sent to a distance of 40 kilometres, (25 miles,) costs only 20c., whereas, in England, it formerly cost 60c.; and sent in France 300 kilometres, (188 miles,) is charged only 60c., whereas, in England, the postage was formerly 1*l*. 20c., 24c.

The following is given as the numbers of the letters which have passed annually through the French Post-office since the year 1820: in 1821 the number was 45,382,151. This increased till 1830, when it became 63,817,260; in 1831 was 63,380,592; in 1832 was 66,915,011; in 1833 was 78,886,377; in 1834 was 70,826,519; in 1835 was 75,019,918; in 1836 was 78,970,561; in 1837 was 83,348,008; in 1838 was 87,625,570; in 1839 was 89,313,080; in 1840 was 91,317,109; in 1841 was 97,015,009; and in the present year may be expected to amount to, if not exceed, 100,000,000, as, during the first six months, the number was upwards of 55,000,000. The diurnal distribution of post letters in Paris amounts at present on an average to 81,000; namely, 44,000 at seven in the morning, 13,000 at half-past nine, 6,000 at twelve, 7,000 at two, 5,000 at four, and 6,000 at six in the afternoon. Of these 61,000 come from abroad, the provinces, and the banlieue, and 20,000 from within the walls of Paris.

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CAMELS IN INDIA.

WE have within the last three months had constant occasion to notice the enormous difficulty of procuring camels at present experienced in Scinde and on the Sutlej—wherever, in fact, we chance to require their services in moving our armies. We formerly stated that the destruction of these invaluable animals, betwixt November, 1838, and November, 1841, must have amounted to above 50,000, and we gave the details of 43,400 ascertained to have been destroyed. We observe it stated by a Peshawur correspondent of the *Delhi Gazette*, that the force under General Pollock will require a supply of at least 30,000, and he probably is not greatly above the mark, though we, in our own speculations, have assumed one-third of this to be sufficient for the present. Thirty thousand camels moving in a single train—as they must do along “the gallery near Ali Musjid, similar to the well known passes of the Simplon, where a road of twelve feet wide traverses for two miles along the face of the rock, the lofty mountain rising like a wall on one side, and a fearful precipice yawning on the other;” or the chasms and defiles of Khoord Cabul, will form a string of animals sixty-six miles long. Where they are to be found in the first place, or how in the second they are to be protected, it seems impossible to divine; but these are not the points on which we are at present about to enter—General Pollock must see to them. Camels will carry a load of 400 pounds, but that which is gen-

erally imposed on them rarely exceeds 300 pounds. They are unfit for use until six years old, though of late much younger animals than this have been pressed into the service. If a load of above 100 pounds, or 150 pounds, be imposed on them, they are very quickly destroyed. Until the pressure which has of late become prevalent began to be experienced, female camels were rarely used any where as beasts of burden. In Scinde and Beloochistan, in particular, no labor of any sort was ever assigned to them. Of late they have, like the males, been pressed into the service; and mothers with young, or with a suckling at their side, may now be seen trudging along with the rest.

We have already extinguished nearly one third of the male camel population in these parts; and we are now busily engaged in annihilating the hopes of a future generation. All these things are formidable enough, and sufficiently fraught with danger in themselves; but we have as yet looked to the destruction of these invaluable creatures only as mischievous, inasmuch as it annihilates our military carriage, and clogs and arrests the movements of our armies. But war, however protracted, must at length have an end. When our armies retire in India, the drain of camels will cease; the inconvenience experienced from the difficulty of obtaining them, now so injurious to our movements, will then come to a close. But here the evils occasioned by the mischief already done only begin to be felt. The camel has been well called the "ship of the desert;" he is the only beast of burden who can travel over the arid tracts which skirt the whole northwest of India, from Guzerat to Delhi. Destroy this means of conveyance, and no substitute can be found for it. The merchant navy of the interior is annihilated, and, unlike the restoration of artificial vehicles, its replacement cannot be accelerated, and must be the work of time. Thus, at once, by our military operations beyond the Indus, is extinguished the means and the possibility of trafficking in the interior within the Indus. The up-country merchants cannot purchase from us. Should they desire to do so, they find that we have stripped them of the means of carrying their purchases away. According to Charles Masson's returns, (*Times*, July 24, 1841,) there were 6,500 camel loads of goods annually imported into Affghanistan from India and the Punjaub before the outbreak of the war. This commerce must for the present in a great measure cease, just because we have destroyed their beasts of burden, by means of which alone the transport of goods could be effected. But simultaneous with this we have thrown unbounded wealth into the hands of the Affghans; riches of which their wildest imagination never dreamed; that a large proportion of this will for the present be hoarded up, according to immemorial usage, cannot be disputed. The wants of the Affghans are few and very simple; but still, such as they are, with the usual sources of supply cut off from them by the suicidal hands of those who annihilated, while they professed to labor to increase, their commercial intercourse, and with the means of choosing another market, how are we to wonder at the statement of Sir Alexander Burnes, that the trade of Russia with Central Asia has doubled within the last two years? Why, in two years more, it would be no marvel should it double again. It will take a generation to draw

out from its receptacles the wealth we have flung around us. We seem now laboring with all our might to prevent its ever returning to India. Russia never yet produced a statesman who labored so hard, so systematically, and so successfully in her service, as Lord Auckland and his advisers have done. If there be wealth, or honor, or gratitude, at the Court of Nicholas, they ought to be heaped by the hands of the now triumphant czar, in boundless profusion, on the heads of those who have bestowed on him all his victories; who have, of their own accord, surrendered the armies, the riches, and the power of India voluntarily into his hands. — *Bombay Times*.

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## PEKIN, IN CHINA.

For about a century, Russia has maintained at Peking a convent and a school, where interpreters are formed for the Chinese and Mantchou. Every ten years, the persons forming these two establishments are changed, and new monks and new pupils are sent from St. Petersburg. The expedition, under the conduct of an officer, crosses Mongolia, and passes the great wall. During their abode in Peking, the Russians have the liberty to see and visit every thing without exciting the uneasy jealousy of the government. An officer of that nation, M. Kovenko, a major of the mining engineers, has recently published, in the "Annuaire of Russian Mines," a sketch of the environs of Peking. Peking is situated in a plain, bounded on the northeast by a chain of mountains, which the Chinese distinguish as north and west, according to their position with regard to the city.

The northern mountains are a day's journey distant from Peking, which does not imply a very considerable distance, for the Chinese in travelling never go further in a day than about ten leagues. In summer, this route is very picturesque, and the country well cultivated. The yellow millet is the plant *par excellence* for the Chinese. The grain is the basis of his food, the stalk is food for the cattle, and takes the place of hay, which they would never think of cutting in this country. The straw of another kind of millet, which grows to a height of fifteen feet, is used in making garden hedges, and also serves as a combustible in the interior of the houses.

Near the northern mountains arise the springs, the temperature of which is 45 degrees. The water is carried in pipes to the baths which are cut out of calcareous rock, and lined with sheet lead. After the spring, many people assemble in this place, either for health or for pleasure. The imperial family have a palace there, and several temples are found in the neighborhood. In these temples the weary traveller can seek refuge, but the hospitality of the priests of Khe-San and of Da-o is never gratuitous. M. Kovenko asserts that a rest of a few hours cost him 18 roubles, and a day's repose cannot be obtained under 25 roubles.

From this statement, the expense of the least excursion in the neighborhood of Pekin may be imagined. A great many fruit-trees grow in the valleys in these mountains, and willows, firs, juniper, and cypress trees may be found here, but these trees do not form forests of any considerable extent.

The western mountains are remarkable for the coal they contain. This coal is so abundant, that it is impossible to pass over a space of half a league without meeting with rich heaps. Meantime, either on account of this abundance, or in consequence of the obstinacy of the Chinese in not bringing any thing to perfection, it may be said that in this country, the art of mining is still in its infancy. Machines to facilitate the working of mines are unknown.

They have no idea of the pumps which are indispensable in draining out the water. If local circumstances permit, they work galleries for draining, or rather they abandon the work when the inundation becomes too great. Their system of ventilating the mines consists in making, at certain distances, openings, over which they place wheels turned by men. But these wheels, though incessantly turning, introduce little air. The mattock, the pick-axe, and the mallet, are their instruments for mining. They trace a vein by the mattock; they insert in it an iron bar, on which they strike with the mallet, and thus detach pieces of coal, of from thirty to forty kilogrammes at a time. Coal is at a moderate price in the capital of China. It is used for heating rooms, and is burnt in bronze vases made for the purpose, or rather the heat is distributed in pipes along the walls, as in a hot-house.

These precautions against the cold are very useful at Pekin, and are not a consequence of the fanciful habit which the Chinese have of always heating their drinks, and even their wines. It is necessary for them to guard against the rigors of winter, for it freezes and snows often in their capital, and on the 31st of December, 1820, M. Timkouski saw the thermometer descend to 12 degrees below the freezing point.

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#### ST. ROLLOX CHIMNEY.

THIS great undertaking was finished June 29, being that day twelve months from the time when the first brick was laid, and the union-jack was, in honor of the event, unfurled from its summit. The greatest anxiety was manifested by a numerous body of the citizens to get to the top of the building, as indeed has been the case for some days past, and, through the kindness of Mr. McIntyre, the contractor, the wish was very liberally gratified; Mr. McIntyre himself accompanying each bucket-load of visitors. Some hundreds have been hoisted to the top, and, dangerous as the enterprise may appear, all who have braved it acknowledge that the risk was amply repaid by the magnificence of the prospect spread out below them. The elevation of this immense undertaking is 450 feet,



including 14 feet of foundation, or building under ground. Although only one chimney can be seen, there are in reality two, an inner and an outer; the former ascends plump or perpendicular to the height of 242 feet; the wall is two feet three inches in thickness at the bottom, and is gradually reduced to fourteen inches at the top; thus making the interior of the stalk wider at the summit than the bottom. It is intended that all the smoke from the works shall be conducted up this inner chimney so far as it goes; and it is built so that when wear and tear render it necessary, it may be repaired, altered, or removed, leaving the great outer protecting stalk untouched. The two chimneys are quite separate, the cope brick of the inner having a projection which comes within six inches of the outer chimney, and as it is built perpendicular, as we have stated, there are four abutments which rise from the bottom to the summit, and thereby impart to it sufficient strength. The base of the great outer stalk under ground is 46 feet; at the surface of the earth its diameter is 40 feet 3 inches, from which it gradually contracts to a diameter of about 11 feet at the summit. For 300 feet from the bottom, the bricks are laid with Campsie lime, river sand, and a proportion of mine or iron-stone blast, and the remaining 150 feet upward is built with what is known to the trade as Arden lime. There are, as near as may be, two millions of bricks used in this stupendous structure, which, at the estimate of 8 1-2 pounds to each brick, gives a total weight of material employed of, in round numbers, no less than 7,500 tons. There has not been a single stone employed in the whole work, even the coping being formed of brick cast for the purpose; and a notion of the vast proportions of the work may be learned from the fact, that the largest chimneys already existing in the city and neighborhood do not ascend more than from 240 to 250 feet from the ground. This monster chimney has been erected by the Messrs. Tennant, with the very laudable view of carrying away the smoke and gas from their chemical works, and thus affording the neighborhood all the relief in their power from any discomforts to which it may have been hitherto subjected; and it is earnestly to be hoped, that a structure which must have been erected at great cost will answer all the ends which have been expected from it.

The engineer of the work is Mr. Andrew Thompson, Buchanan street, and the builder, or bricklayer, is Mr. D. C. M'Intyre. The foundation brick was laid on the 29th June, 1841; and, as there was a suspension from October till April in the present year, the whole may be said to have been completed in the short space of six months. The view from the summit is beautiful beyond description. On a clear day the eye rests in one direction on the lengthened course of the Clyde, the shores of the Dunoon, the Isle of Arran, the lofty peak of Ben Lomond, and the glorious scenery of the West Highlands; and in another direction the gaze commands the outlines of Edinburgh, the Frith of Forth, and the shores of the "Kingdom of Fife." — *Glasgow Argus*.

## THE TOTAL SOLAR ECLIPSE OF JULY 8TH, 1842.

THERE are some questions relating to the physical structure of the sun and moon, which can only be solved by observations made during a total solar eclipse. In a partial eclipse of the sun, the excess of light from those parts which are unobscured is so great as to prevent observations with a view to such questions. No assistance is gained, for instance, in such inquiries as refer to the possible emission of a slight native light by the moon, to the nature of the zodiacal light, and similar points, by observations made in a solar eclipse, unless the light of the sun, which is very much greater than these lights, is wholly excluded. Although solar eclipses are somewhat more frequent than lunar, the extent of country from which any one can be observed is much smaller. Total solar eclipses can be seen in a small part of a small zone of the earth only, if at all, and from these causes the occurrence of a total solar eclipse, at a period when it can be observed in a civilized country is so rare, that the phenomenon receives a peculiar interest. On the 8th of July of the present year, such an eclipse took place, the obscuration of the sun being total in the southern parts of France, in Switzerland, and in the north of Italy. The following account of an accurate observation of this remarkable phenomenon is taken from a French journal; it was prepared to be read before the Academy of Toulouse, by skilful observers. We have been prevented from publishing it at an earlier period; but the observations made of the remarkable appearances attendant on the eclipse are well worthy of preservation, for so favorable opportunities as this are extremely rare. Our readers will remember that the last total eclipse of the sun observed in New England was that of 1806. The account which we translate, was prepared by Messrs. Pinaud and Boisgiraud, professors in the Academy of Sciences at Toulouse. It enters into the peculiar questions to which we have alluded, and suggests some new hypotheses as to the nature of the sun. The observations were made at Narbonne, in the south of France.

"We selected," say these gentlemen, "one of the towers of the cathedral of Saint Just for our observatory. At four in the morning each of us was at his post. Three astronomical spy-glasses and one of Gregory's telescopes were directed to the point of the horizon where the sun would rise. The chronometers were regulated, and besides these, we had a very sensible thermometer, two polariscopes, and a collection of colored glasses of different shades and thicknesses among our instruments. The thermometer indicated a temperature of 65 deg. 3s. Fahrenheit, in the shade.

"At 4h. 23m. 30s. the sun appeared on the horizon. It rose behind a zone of light clouds, which tempered its brilliancy; but soon rising above this body of vapor, which it had partly dispersed, it shone out with perfect splendor. From this time the sky was perfectly clear, and the observation to which we had so eagerly looked forward was favored throughout by the finest weather.

"As the hour fixed by the astronomers for the beginning of the eclipse

approached, our impatience and emotion were more and more excited, until, at the instant which had been named, the disc of the moon appeared upon that of the sun, and thus confirmed the infallible exactness of the astronomical predictions. At 4h. 50 m. 15s., about 27 minutes after sunrise, the eastern side of the moon touched the western side of the solar disc, in the northwest portion, at 41 degrees to the right of the vertical diameter, the eclipsing body advancing with a uniform motion from the northwest to the southeast. At 5h. 42m. 54s. the visible part of the sun formed but a very narrow crescent, the horns of which became finer and finer. Several dark indentations at this moment broke in on the regularity which had thus far been observed in the form of the crescent. They changed their figure constantly, and it was impossible to determine their number and depth from the undulatory motion of the rays of light on the edges of the bright portion. Dark stripes also appeared near the ends of the horns. Some seconds after, the disc of the moon had entirely covered the sun, and at 5h. 43m. 13s. the eclipse was total. Before describing the beautiful phenomena which were observed during the total obscuration, we will complete the detail of the several phases. The total eclipse ended at 5h. 45m. 11s.; it lasted, therefore, at Narbonne, 1m. 58s. As soon as the western edge of the sun passed from behind the moon, a brilliant light flashed out, then a very slight crescent reappeared on the north-northeast side. Several moving indentations and distinctly marked stripes again appeared, principally towards the ends of the horns. As the crescent grew larger, the number of these indentations diminished, and the dark *ligaments* which had seemed to unite the two extremities of the crescent had quite disappeared in 20 or 25 seconds. The eclipse ended at 6h. 42m. 40s. Its whole duration therefore was 1h. 52m. 25s.

"After this rapid statement of the several phases of the eclipse, we proceed to mention in order the principal circumstances which preceded, accompanied, and followed it.

"As the obscuration increased, the solar light, gradually growing less and less, spread through the air and on terrestrial objects a shade or tint which constantly became paler and paler, and in which we could not distinguish any positive and well-defined color. But it was not an obscurity of the same nature as that which follows twilight; it was a wan and livid light, a shade approaching to a tawny gray, which hung over every thing like a veil of mourning. It was difficult to resist a sensation of sadness."

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"The observations which had been made on former eclipses had led astronomers to expect that after the total disappearance of the sun, the disc of the moon would appear encircled with a ring of light; and the attention of observers had been chiefly called to the nature of this light, the moment of its appearance, its size, and the true position of its centre. As soon as the eclipse became total, a luminous crown appeared around the disc of the moon. It appeared to us to be of the same size in every direction. \* \* \* This beautiful crown did not appear to be of any particular color; it was a white, homogeneous light, the intensity of which gradually diminished as its distance from the ob-

scure disc of the moon increased. We observed in it a few of those rectilinear rays, brighter than the rest, which have been compared with those which make up the 'glories of saints.' What surprised us most, however, was the difference of brilliancy which was observable in different parts of the crown. In the middle of the southeast region of the lunar disc, over an extent of at least 45 degrees, there appeared a beautiful *sheaf* of diverging curvilinear rays, the two last of which intercepted between their opposite curves, a spot where the light was much less intense than in any other part of the ring. Beyond this, on each side, a diffused, uniform light extended to the northeast region, near the middle of which appeared a large cone of converging luminous rays, more brilliant than the surrounding parts.

"The interior surface of the disc of the moon was of uniform obscurity, but not so intense that we could not easily observe upon it the micrometric lines of the spy-glass. We did not see on the surface of the moon any of those winding and moving flashes which were noticed in 1715 by Louville and Halley. One of us, however, distinctly saw the sudden appearance, about the middle of the total eclipse, of a brilliant point, surrounded with a bright circular scintillation. It remained fixed in the lower part of the south-southeast region, a little to the left of the vertical diameter, near the circumference of the disc, and did not disappear till just before the end of the total eclipse. Was it not the same as that observed by Ulloa, which that Spanish Admiral attributed to a long opening passing through the globe of the moon so as to give passage to the light of the sun, when masked by our satellite? Might not this light be the effect of a lunar volcano, the eruption of which precisely coincided with the moment of the eclipse, or may it not be rather attributed to the solar rays, which, reflected by a limited extent of the terrestrial waters, might have been thus concentrated on a portion of the moon's surface, to be sent back to us by a new reflection? Thus much is certain, that it did not appear to us, as to Ulloa, in the northwest region, but in one almost diametrically opposite.

"The most remarkable and unexpected phenomenon, however, which the luminous ring presented during the total eclipse, was this:

"On the upper edge of the lunar disc, extending from the vertical diameter towards the west, was an appearance as if of mountains of fire, with a perpendicular ascent on their left sides, but sloping down with sharp and broken points on the opposite side. There were three very distinct ones in this quarter, of which the first, which was the highest, had an elevation equal to one twelfth of the apparent diameter of the moon. A little further to the right, several undulating elevations were seen on the circumference of the disc, but none so high as these. They were less distinctly marked, but quite as brilliant. Two similar peaks, lower than those of the upper side, with their sides sloping in the same direction, were shining at the same time, one on the right side, a little below the horizontal diameter, the other on the left, a little above this diameter. That on the left side was the first that we noticed.

"Words fail us to give an exact idea of these fiery mountains. They were like rocks of melted crystal, of a pale rose color, seeming to have a



sort of transparency, and shining with a calm light, without sparkling. Their forms were perfectly distinct, the edges sharply and clearly marked. They preserved throughout the same forms, the same positions, and exhibited no changes, excepting that the peaks on the upper part appeared to grow larger as the total eclipse approached its end. They enlarged, not like a body which is itself elongating, or changing its form, but as if they were elevations, of which the summits and middle parts only were at first perceptible, the bases becoming gradually visible as the veil which had covered them sunk slowly down.

"This magnificent spectacle lasted to the end of the solar eclipse. When the sun moved from behind the obscure disc of our satellite, the first ray of light appeared with a brilliant flash, much more intense than the last ray before the total occultation. At this moment, but not till then, the luminous ring which surrounded the moon, and the glowing peaks which appeared on a part of its circumference, were suddenly overpowered in the fires of the orb of day."

This last, very singular phenomenon, of course opens a wide field for speculation. The very rare occurrence of a total eclipse is the only time when it can be observed, as the epoch of such a recurrence is the only time when observations can be made on some of the facts involved in it. Messrs. Pinaud and Boisgiraud, the observers, risk the following suggestions in the memoir from which we have quoted :

"A question of great interest here presents itself. What are these peaks, these mountains of fire ? It cannot be supposed that they are the mountains in the moon, for as their obscure side was turned towards the earth, they would have appeared opaque and dark. Besides, the edges of the lunar disc have never exhibited asperities of such great size. It was no phenomenon arising from refraction, or any other influence affecting the rays of light : the perfect quiescence of these luminous bodies, the sharpness of their edges, the irregularity of their position around the disc of the moon, forbid such a supposition, which, indeed, cannot be justified by any known physical phenomena.

"If these bodies did not belong to the moon ; if they were not appearances produced by the eclipse itself ; the most natural hypothesis is that which places them in the sun.

"This supposition is so new, that we hazard it with great hesitation. It is not, however, impossible ; for we may suppose that these solar mountains, if they exist, are only a small fraction of the whole mass of the sun, and send to the earth a light incomparably less than that emitted from the whole globe. On this supposition they would necessarily disappear in the brilliant light which comes to us from its disc, particularly when that light is dimmed by the interposition of dark glasses. We may here observe, that these fiery mountains, as well as the luminous ring in which they were enveloped, were entirely invisible when searched for with a telescope fitted with a colored glass. They could only be seen through instruments with transparent glasses. We will add, that the perceptible increase in height, which we noticed in the peaks on the upper side, accorded, in our opinion, with the gradual progress of the moon before the sun."

## THE KHOUDS, IN INDIA.

THE late London journals have given some account of a race of people in India, professing a peculiar religious faith, hitherto little known; namely, the Khouds. One of these papers gives the following account of this singular form of superstition. It purports to be founded on the report of an officer, Lieutenant Macpherson, who was deputed by the government for the purpose of observing the peculiarities of this people. This inquiry was set on foot for the ultimate purpose of abolishing the practice of human sacrifice, to which the race is inveterately addicted. These Khouds, it seems, occupy the mountainous region of the Gangam and Cuttack districts, and have maintained their independence amid every change of dynasty in India, while at the same time they are connected with the Hindoo Zemindarees in their vicinity, to whom they render a sort of allegiance, promising them military aid. The patriarch of each tribe attends at stated periods on a Hindoo Rajah, and receives from him a dress of honor. This sort of investiture does not appear consistent with their attribute of freedom, but they seem to set off one homage against another, since they send to the Zemindars a similar robe of homage on their accession to their estates. The government of the Khouds is entirely patriarchal, and the patriarch of each tribe is chosen from the members of a particular family. He is scarcely a ruler, nor is he particularly distinguished from the rest in any other respect than being a kind of head man in a village. There is, however, a federal patriarch of all the tribes in one district, who, while he is paramount over the rest, is at the same time an agent of the Zemindars. All the Khouds are allodial proprietors of the soil, both renters and hired laborers being unknown among them. They conduct their agricultural operations with great skill, and they are honorably distinguished for their hospitality. Their villages cannot be entered without an invitation, but when a stranger is invited, he remains as long as he pleases, and cannot be turned away. Indeed, life and honor are pledged for the safety of a guest, who is considered even before a child. Their fidelity to their engagements is also remarkable, and to bind themselves by an oath, they swear upon the skin of a tiger. So far, the race appears virtuous enough; but it is the prevalence of human sacrifice, not from motives of vengeance, but from purely religious grounds, that renders them an object of attention. According to their theology, the "Bera Pennoo," or Earth-god, holds the preëminence among the national deities. The earth having originally been an unstable mass, unfit for cultivation, this Earth-god ordered that human blood should be spilled before him. The soil then became firm and productive, and the deity of the Khouds commanded the repetition of the sacrifice as necessary to existence. Carrying out the principles of this creed, the Khoud thinks that every field must be enriched with human blood when the principal crops are sowed; another oblation of the same kind is required at harvest time; and in case of any incidental calamity, such as an epidemic disorder, an attack of wild beasts, &c., the wrath of the Earth-god must be appeased by this

barbarous sacrifice. The victims are Hindoos purchased for the purpose, and are treated as sacred persons till their time for immolation comes, when amid the most elaborate ceremonies they are torn to pieces, yet living, by the crowd. To stop these barbarous proceedings the government of India feels that it is morally bound, but the means of effecting the desired reformation are not at all obvious, as the Khouds consider the sacrifice as absolutely necessary to their existence, and would struggle hard to maintain it, while they are scattered over so wide an expanse of country, and the climate is so unwholesome, that military occupation would be almost impossible.

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## REAL PROPERTY IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

ACCORDING to a return made to an order of the House of Commons last session, it appears that the total annual value of real property assessed to the poor-rates in England is 59,685,412*l.*; of which 30,448,991*l.* consisted of landed property, 22,991,472*l.* of dwelling-houses, and 6,244,940*l.* of all other kinds of property.

Middlesex, although the smallest county but one, namely, Rutland, comprising as it does the greater part of London, is, as might be expected, the richest county of the kingdom; its total annual value of real property assessed amounting to no less than 7,293,369*l.* This sum is thus distributed: Landed property, 304,653*l.*; dwelling-houses, 6,680,202*l.*; all other kinds of property, 308,514*l.*

Yorkshire ranks next to Middlesex in point of wealth, its total annual value of assessed property being 5,448,494*l.*, distributed as follows: Landed property, 3,865,496*l.*; dwelling-houses, 1,817,739*l.*; all other kinds of property, 575,259*l.*

Lancashire comes next. The total annual value of real property assessed in the county of Lancashire is 5,266,606*l.*, made up as follows: Landed property, 1,402,208*l.*; dwelling-houses, 2,449,196*l.*; all other kinds of property, 1,415,202*l.*

Rutland, as it is the smallest, so is it also the least wealthy county; its total annual value of real property being only 119,134*l.*, composed as follows: Landed property, 106,119*l.*; dwelling-houses, 9,104*l.*; all other kinds of property, 3,911*l.*

Westmoreland is the next least wealthy county; the total annual value of its real property assessed being 266,335*l.*; made up of real property, 221,054*l.*; dwelling-houses, 37,374*l.*; all other kinds of property, 7,907*l.*

Huntingdon is next, the total annual value of its real property assessed being 317,718*l.*, made up as follows: Landed property, 236,633*l.*; dwelling-houses, 71,221*l.*; all other kinds of property, 9,864*l.*

The sum levied for poor-rates in England for the year ending Lady-day, 1841, was 6,009,564*l.* The rate in the pound on the annual value of real property assessed in 1841 was, for the whole of England, 2*s.*

It is a circumstance worthy of notice, that the rates are highest in those parts of the country which we are not accustomed to refer to as the most distressed. The highest rated county is Wilts, in which the rate amounts to 3s. in the pound. In Sussex the rate is only one penny in the pound less than in Wiltshire, namely, 2s. 11d. In Buckinghamshire, Suffolk, and Surrey, the rate is 2s. 9d. in the pound; in Essex, Dorset, Gloucester, and Southampton, it is 2s. 8d.; whilst in Yorkshire it is only 1s. 11d., and in Lancashire, 1s. 8d.

The rate per head of annual value of real property is, for the whole kingdom, 3l. 19s. 7d. The rate per head is highest in Herefordshire, namely, 5l. 19s. 1d., and lowest in Cornwall, namely, 2l. 13s. 4d. The area of England in English statute acres, is 31,770,615. The average annual value per acre for the whole kingdom is 19s. 2d. Middlesex is the county in which the value reaches the highest point; the average value there is 1l. 14s. per acre. In Leicestershire the annual value per acre is 1l. 7s., and in Lancashire 1l. 5s. The county in which land is of the lowest value is Westmoreland, where the average annual value per acre is only 9s. 1d.; in Northumberland it is 12s. 9d., and in Sussex it is 13s. 6d.

The total annual value of real property in Wales assessed to the poor-rates is 2,854,618l., of which 2,206,146l. consist of landed property, 394,929l. of dwelling-houses, and 253,543l. of all other kinds of property.

The total sum levied in Wales for poor rates for the year ended Lady-day, 1841, was 342,264l. The average rate in the pound for the whole country is higher than in England, it being 2s. in the latter, and 2s. 5d. in Wales. The poor-rates are highest in Carnarvonshire, namely, 3s. 2d. in the pound, and lowest in Brecon, 1s. 7d.

The area of Wales in English statute acres is 4,752,000. The average annual value per acre for the whole country is 9s. 3d. Land is most valuable in Anglesea, where the average value is 19s.; and least valuable in Merionethshire, where the average value is 4s. 8d.

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#### THE HOSPITAL OF INVALIDS, OF PARIS.

ON the 21st of October, Marshal Oudinot, Duke of Reggio, was appointed Governor of the Hospital of Invalids, which has been for some time vacant, in consequence of the death of the Duke of Cornegliano. The officers and residents of this institution are the following, namely: 1 governor, 1 lieutenant-general, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 major, 2 military sub-intendants, 1 head-physician, 1 head-surgeon, 1 head-pharmacien, 1 assistant-surgeon, 3 sub-assistant surgeons, 1 assistant-pharmacien, (aide major,) 5 infirmiry-assistants, 25 sisters of charity, and 260 servants of all kinds, 1 almoner and 2 chaplains, 1 treasurer (archiviste), 1 architect, 1 controller of works, and 1 piqueur of the Ponts



et Chaussées. The full number of invalides is 2,913, composed of 1 colonel, 1 chef-de-bataillon, 46 captains, 65 lieutenants, 49 sub-lieutenants, 24 chefs-de-division and adjutants, 12 non-commissioned adjutants, 71 honorary-captains, 266 honorary-lieutenants, 51 sergeant-majors, 260 sergeants, 448 corporals, 1,603 soldiers, and 16 drummers. There are at this moment 17 epileptic patients, 10 invalides deprived of both legs, 5 of both arms, 365 of one leg, 255 of one arm, 180 are blind, 154 have wounds reckoned equivalent to the loss of a limb; of the total number of inmates 667 are more than 70 years of age. The knights of the order of St. Louis are 16 in number, those of the Legion of Honor, 211. At the table of the officers, each is allowed for breakfast a plate of meat, a plate of vegetables, and a salad; at dinner they have soup and bouilli, a plate of meat, a plate of vegetables, and dessert. When poultry is served, a fowl is for four, and a turkey for six. On Sunday a plate of meat may be exchanged for some luxury, and on Monday eggs are also served. The superior officers are served apart in their own rooms, and have an additional plate of meat every day. Every man, from the colonel to the private soldier, has a litre of wine, and a pound and a half of bread, both of good quality. There is but one kind of bread, but there is a better kind of wine for the sick. The non-commissioned officers and soldiers have for breakfast every day soup and bouilli and fresh vegetables; at dinner they have each a plate of meat, vegetables, and cheese. The officers are served with silver plate, which was the gift of the Emperor. Twelve persons dine at each table. There are three grand repasts annually, at which choice food and wine are served. These are, the birthday of the sovereign, Twelfth-day, and the 30th of July, in commemoration of the Revolution. On Twelfth-day a cake of six pounds is given to every 12 men. The weight of meat at each meal to officers and men is 20 decagrammes, (the fifth of a killogramme, or about half a pound English,) if prepared with vegetables, or 25 decagrammes, if roasted.

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## CHRONOLOGY.

PESTH, (Hungary,) August 24. The ceremony of laying the foundation-stone of the suspension bridge now being erected across the Danube, to unite the cities of Pesth and Buda, took place this day. Of the gigantic work now in progress, two coffer-dams, unequalled in cubical dimensions by any ever yet constructed, are now complete and water-tight, being those on

the Pesth side, whilst those on the Buda side are in an advanced stage. That destined for the sustaining pier on the Pesth shore was the scene of yesterday's display. It was fitted up as a vast saloon, with graduated seats all round it, to accommodate two thousand people, with a "loge," or box, for the royal party, on a platform at one end, all tastefully covered

and decorated with cloth and drapery of the national colors, green, red, and white. Some time previous to the hour named, those who had obtained tickets of admission took their seats with order and precision, and shortly after 5 o'clock, P. M., (the appointed time,) a discharge of artillery announced the departure of the Royal cortège from the Palatine's Palace at Buda, and in due time the Archduke Charles, the hero of Wagram, dressed in an Hussar uniform of red, wearing the order of the Fleece, with numerous other decorations, being commissioned by his nephew the Emperor Ferdinand to represent him on this occasion, descended the spacious stairs made in the framework of the dam, accompanied by the Palatine, his Archduchess, and their two children, (the Archduke Joseph and Princess Elizabeth,) the flower of Hungary's nobles, the magistrates and officials of the cities, aids-de-camp, and, amongst others, Mr. W. Tierney Clark, an Englishman, the engineer of this gigantic work. Their Highnesses, having reached their places amidst cries of "*Elj'en*," (pronounced Eh-en, the Hungarian of "*Viva*," or our "*Hurrah!*") remained there to hear, read and to sign with others the inscription, in Hungarian, to be placed beneath the foundation-stone; which being done, it was, with the coins of the realm, placed by the engineer in its destined bed, and on a signal being given by him, the "traveler," (the machine for raising, lowering, and setting the ponderous masses of stone in such works,) was moved forward from the other end of the dam, bringing with it a block of granite of about 90 cubic feet in size, and which, being lowered and fixed in its berth, the Archduke Charles was presented by the Baron Sina with a gorgeous and elaborately worked gold and silver trowel, (executed by Messrs. Mortimer and Hunt, of London,) and mallet, and thereupon the usual ceremony of applying both to the stone was gone through by his Royal Highness, and then by the Palatine, his wife and children, the Primate, the magistrates of the city, the Baron Sina, the Count Stephen Izchenyi, and the engineer, which being communicated by the hoisting of a flag to those without, a response was given by a discharge of 25 cannon, and thus closed this interesting and splendid ceremonial.

The interior of the dam afforded no ordinary *coup d'ail*, peopled as it was by lovely and elegantly dressed ladies, the magnates of the land in their studded and

jewelled Magyar dresses, the dignitaries of the Romish and Greek churches in their robes and crosses, the Austrian generals and officers in their well stuffed and padded white uniforms, and the civilian in his sombre and russet dress of the present time.

LONDON, October 3. NEW ARRANGEMENT OF THE WEST INDIA MAIL. The new plan for the West India mail-packet service, which has just gone into operation, is here explained in detail, on account of its importance, as one of the principal channels of communication between the two continents.

According to this plan, a steamer engaged on that part of the service which is called the "Out-Atlantic" is to leave Southampton on the 1st and 15th of each month, (perhaps a day later,) and will, while Falmouth is retained as a port, call there for the outward mails, leaving on the 15th and 17th. She will then proceed to Corunna, remaining 12 hours for coals, and thence to Funchal, Madeira, where she will remain to land her mails, for a period not exceeding six hours. She then goes on to St. Thomas's, and there delivers her outward mails to four steamers, waiting for her, and the destination of which will presently be explained. Having thus dispersed her mails, she in her turn becomes one of the four vessels to await the arrival of the next steamer, that will follow from Europe in 15 days. The voyage from Falmouth to St. Thomas's is estimated at about 19 1-2 days.

The first of the four steamers receiving her mails at St. Thomas's, sets out on the Demerara route, it being calculated that she is to start about 22 days after the first steamer left England, or two days and a half after the arrival of that vessel at St. Thomas's. On her route she delivers mails at the following places, in the order in which they are here set down: Tortola, St. Kitt's, Nevis, Montserrat, Antigua, Guadaloupe, Dominica, Martinique, St. Lucia, Barbadoes, and Demerara, calling at all the same islands in the reverse order on her way back to St. Thomas's, where she returns after an estimated absence of 14 days and 5 hours. For stopping at each island, both on the route to Demerara and back, two hours at most are allowed, and at Demerara she will remain to "coal" until 30 days 15 hours, reckoned from the time when the outward mail left Falmouth. At Barbadoes, where she will arrive in 25 days 8 hours, reckoned from the same distance, she will find a small

steamer destined for the Trinidad station, which will necessarily visit St. Vincent's, Grenada, Tobago, and Trinidad, touching at the same places on her way back to Barbadoes, and occupying by her total route from and to Barbadoes, 6 days 13 hours. The stay at Trinidad is so to be regulated that she may leave it in 29 days 6 hours from the date of the departure of the outward mails from Falmouth, and when she has returned to Barbadoes, she is to wait there for the next arrival from St. Thomas's, when she will repeat her voyage as before.

The second of the four steamers which receives at St. Thomas's the mails from Europe, and which, like the first, starts in 22 days from the departure from Falmouth, is destined for the Jamaica station, and visits in succession San Juan, (Porto Rico,) Cape Haytien, St. Jago de Cuba, and Jamaica, and returns to St. Thomas's in 14 days 2 hours, having touched at the same places on her journey back. This steamer will not, however, take the Jamaica out-mails, but merely call for the correspondence from that island. The Jamaica out-mails will be taken by the third steamer from St. Thomas's, destined for the Havannah station, which will proceed at once to Jamaica, and then to Cape Antonio, Havannah, Nassau, and Bermuda, the voyage from St. Thomas's to Bermuda being accomplished in 17 days 22 hours. The fourth of the steamers at St. Thomas's is destined for the Bermuda station, performing her journey there and back in 12 days 20 hours, and is employed in receiving the home mails collected by other steamers, and the outward mails for Bermuda, if they arrive at St. Thomas's before midnight on the 22d day after the outward mail leaves Falmouth.

For the transmission of mails to Mexico a steamer is stationed at Havannah, where the mails will arrive in 29 1-2 days after they have left England, and will proceed first to Vera Cruz, and then to Tampico, returning to Havana in 26 days. The home mails from Havannah having reached Bermuda in 40 days from the time when the outward mails left Falmouth, and then collected at St. Thomas's in 41 1-2 days, they will all leave Bermuda in about 44 days, and proceed direct to Southampton by a large steamer, the voyage occupying 16 days 12 hours. For Laguayra, for Chagres, touching at Santa Martha and Carthagen, and for Honduras, schooners are to proceed respectively

from St. Thomas's, Jamaica, and Havannah.

The following notice is exhibited at the General Post Office.

"Henceforward the mails for Mexico, Honduras, (Belize,) Chagres, and the Isthmus of Panama, Carthagen, Santa Martha, Laguayra, and Puerto Cabello, will be made up on the 1st day of every month, as heretofore; consequently no mails will be made up on the 15th.

"The mails for the British and foreign possessions in the West Indies, with the exception of Honduras, as abovementioned, will continue to be made up in London as hitherto on the 1st and 15th of every month, except, of course, when those dates fall on a Sunday; in this case the mails will be made up on the following day.

"The packets will no longer touch at New Orleans, Savannah, Charleston, N. York, Halifax, Nova Scotia; Curacao, Paramaribo, in Surinam; Maracaibo, Bahia Honda, San Juan de Nicaragua, Mayaquess, in Porto Rico; Ponce, in Porto Rico; Turk's Island, Cape Nichola Mole, in Hayti; and Santa Cruz.

"On the return voyage the packets will continue to touch at Bermuda and Fayal, but the schooner between Fayal and Madeira, announced in the notice of December, 1841, is now to be discontinued.

The rates of postage to the ports in the British Possessions, are 1s.; to Cape Haytien, Guadaloupe, Martinique, St. Thomas, and Porto Rico, 1s. 5d.; to Havana, Vera Cruz, Tampico, Porto Cabello, and other foreign ports on the continent, 2s. 3d.

BERMUDA, October 11. The royal mail steam packet Isis, which was on her return to England for repairs, in company with the steam packet Medway, sunk last night at a distance of 40 miles from this island. The Isis had run aground September 12, on the east part of Porto Rico, and in consequence her bottom was much damaged. She proceeded thence to Jamaica, where she underwent some repairs; but it was found necessary, that for more effectual repairs she should be sent to England, accompanied by another vessel. She proceeded from Port Royal to Nassau, and left the latter place with the Medway, on the 3d inst., for this island. The weather continued fine until the 7th, when the wind began to blow fresh, and became a heavy gale from the eastward. The ship then began to strain, and the leak increased. The men were obliged to

be kept constantly at the hand pumps, those worked by the engines not being sufficient to keep the ship free from water, and during the night of the 9th the pumps became unserviceable, and the water gained so far as to put out the fires, and the engines stopped. The signal of distress was made for the Medway, and she immediately bore down to the relief of the Iris, in the midst of a heavy squall. The life-boats were now with much difficulty got into the water, but from the heavy sea running, little hopes could be entertained of saving the lives of those on board, expecting every moment the boat would either be dashed to pieces or swamped alongside. Fortunately, at this moment a heavy squall of rain lulled the wind and sea, and by great care and difficulty the boats were hauled under the lee quarter, and the passengers and half the ship's company lowered themselves by ropes into the first, and she was cast off and allowed to drift towards the Medway; the remaining part of the ship's company and officers then lowered themselves into the other boat, and she was also cast off, and the Isis left to her fate. All on board were saved, except one boy, who was unfortunately drowned.

LONDON, October 20. **PRECISION IN GUNNERY.** A highly interesting experiment was tried on board the *Excellent*, gunnery-ship, at Portsmouth a few days ago, to test the efficacy of the defences of the boilers in steam-ships of war. One of the difficulties to surmount, in order to render the steam navy of greater efficiency in action, is to afford adequate protection to the boilers against the shot of the enemy, as a ball perforating them would at once place the vessel *hors de combat*. With the view of affording this protection to their boilers, several war-steamers have been fitted up with extra defences at the parts where the boilers are fixed. These defences consist of fifteen plates or layers of metal, each three eighths of an inch thick. The object of the experiment on board the *Excellent* was to ascertain what resistance these defences of boilers would offer to a cannonade at point blank distance, which is four hundred yards. An iron target was prepared, made exactly of the material which constitutes the protection of the boilers of a steamer, and placed at the distance of four hundred yards from the ship, from which guns of different calibre were fired at it. Admirals Sir E. Codrington and Parker, and a great number of naval officers, including

those from the Austrian frigate, were present to witness the experiment. The first shot that was fired was an 8-inch hollow shot, and was projected from a 68-pounder medium gun. It struck the bull's-eye, or centre of the target, and, slightly indenting it to the depth of about five inches, rebounded therefrom, and was split into several pieces by the concussion. The second shot was a solid 32-pounder, and was fired from a gun of nine feet six inches; it struck the edge of the target, glanced off, and was split in two pieces. The third shot hit the centre of the target, where it lodged, having penetrated several plates. The fourth shot struck the third, and sent it clean through all parts of the iron, splitting it into numberless pieces, which were found on the off side of the wooden stage, on which the target was fixed. The fifth and sixth shots went through the perforation made by the third and fourth. About ten other shots were fired, all striking the target in various parts, and completely destroying it. The result of this experiment has shown how totally inadequate are the present defences of the boilers of war-steamers to protect them from the assaults of the enemy, where a precision of fire shall be attained. It has also shown, what is much more satisfactory, the high state of perfection which the gunnery practice has been brought to by those studying it on board the *Excellent*, thus practically proving the great utility of this admirable institution, from which gunnery officers and seamen are supplied to the fleet. All officers now are obliged to undergo a strict examination in gunnery before they can pass for lieutenants. Should any of the *Excellent's* hereafter be "called out," they can render duelling much more interesting than it now is; for having the choice of weapons, they can choose long 32-pounders, distance a quarter of a mile, and calculate with the same certainty of winning their man as a crack shot does now of snuffing a candle at twelve paces with hair-trigger pistols.

LONDON, October 30. **SUPPRESSION OF THE SLAVE TRADE.** The following letter, from Lord Aberdeen to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, which has been published in the course of the discussions on the slave question, has been the subject of much animadversion by the Paris press:

"FOREIGN OFFICE, May 20, 1842.

"My Lords—I beg to call your lordships' attention to the subject of the in-



structions given to Her Majesty's naval officers employed in suppressing the slave trade on the coast of Africa, and to the proceedings which have taken place with reference thereto, as detailed in the papers named in the margin of this letter.

"Her Majesty's Advocate-General, to whom these papers have been submitted, has reported that he cannot take upon himself to advise that all the proceedings described as having taken place at Gallinas, New Cestos, and Sea Bar, are strictly justifiable, or that the instructions to Her Majesty's naval officers, as referred to in these papers, are such as can with perfect legality be carried into execution.

"The Queen's Advocate is of opinion that the blockading rivers, landing, and destroying buildings, and carrying off persons held in slavery in countries with which Great Britain is not at war, cannot be considered as sanctioned by the law of nations, or by the provisions of any existing treaties, and that, however desirable it may be to put an end to the slave trade, a good, however eminent, should not be attained otherwise than by lawful means.

"Accordingly, and with reference to the proceedings of Captain Nurse at Rio Pongas, on the 28th of April, 1841, as well as to the letters addressed from this department to the Admiralty on the 6th of April, the 1st and 17th of June, and the 25th July of last year, I would submit to the consideration of your lordships, that it is desirable that Her Majesty's naval officers employed in suppressing the slave trade should be instructed to abstain from destroying slave factories, and carrying off persons held in slavery, unless the power upon whose territory, or within whose jurisdiction, the factories or the slaves are found, should by treaty with Great Britain, or by formal written agreement with British officers, have empowered Her Majesty's naval forces to take these steps for the suppression of the slave trade; and that if, in proceeding to destroy any factory, it should be found to contain merchandise or other property which there may be reason to suppose to be on to foreign traders, care should be taken not to include such property in the destruction of the factory.

"With respect to the blockading rivers, it appears from the papers referred to, that the terms "blockade" and "blockading" have been used by British naval officers, when adverting to the laudable

practice of stationing cruisers off the slave-trading stations, with the view the better to intercept vessels carrying on the slave trade contrary to treaties between Great Britain and the powers to which such vessels belong.

"But as the term 'blockade,' properly used, extends to an interdiction of all trade, and indeed all communication with the place blockaded, I beg leave to submit for your lordships' consideration, whether it will not be proper to caution Her Majesty's naval officers upon this head, lest by the inadvertent and repeated use of the term 'blockade,' the exercise of the duty confided to British officers in suppressing the slave trade might, by any one, be confounded with the very different one of actual blockade. I have, &c.,

"ABERDEEN."

LONDON, October 31. BANK CIRCULATION. The promissory notes in circulation in the United Kingdom, for the four weeks ending the 15th October, when compared with those ending September 17th, 1842, give the following results:

	This time. Oct. 15.	Last time. Sept. 17.	In- crease.	De- crease.
ENGLAND.	£	£	£	£
Bank of England,	19,503,000	19,914,000	.	411,000
Private Banks,	5,488,661	5,098,259	390,402	.
Joint Stock Banks,	3,064,539	2,819,749	244,790	.
SCOTLAND.				
Chartered, Private, and Joint Stock Banks,	2,743,795	2,648,549	95,246	.
IRELAND.				
Bank of Ireland, Private and Joint Stock Banks,	3,041,150	2,808,025	233,125	.
Bullion in the Bank,	2,002,784	1,853,012	339,772	.
	9,501,000	9,806,000	.	15,000
Total Circulation,	35,843,929	34,919,594		
Total circulation, 15th October,				£35,343,929
" " 17th September,				34,919,594
Net increase,				£894,335
Gross increase on circulation,				£1,305,335
Deduct decrease on Bank of England,				411,000
				£894,335

An analysis of the component parts of the circulation as at October, 1841, presents some startling results, when compared with the present currency, as will be seen from the following table:

YEARLY COMPARISON.

	1841. Oct. 16.	1842. Oct. 15.	In- crease.	De- crease.
Bank of England	£	£	£	£
Circulation,	17,340,000	19,503,000	2,163,000	.
Private Banks,	6,253,964	5,488,661	.	765,303
Joint Stock,	3,519,384	3,064,539	.	454,845
Scotch Chartered and Private Banks,	3,203,703	2,743,759	.	459,944
Bank of Ireland,	3,060,750	3,041,150	.	19,600
Irish Private and Joint Stock,	2,185,398	2,002,784	.	182,614
Bullion,	4,290,000	9,801,000	5,511,000	.
				1,882,500

Thus we have a decrease of £1,882,306 in the provincial currency, against £2,163,000 increase of Bank of England notes. The contracted condition of the currency of the joint-stock and private banks has been occasioned by the increasing poverty of the people, while the Bank of England has given out its notes in exchange for light gold, and so obtained a great increase of its paper issues, and a large addition to its store of bullion.

PARIS, October 3. THE BANK OF FRANCE. The *Moniteur* publishes, in obedience to the law of June 30, 1840, the following quarterly account of the Bank of France:

*Debtor and Creditor Account of the Bank.*

DEBTOR.		francs.	c.
Bank notes in circulation payable to bearer, not comprising those of the branch banks,	223,748,500	0	
Bank notes to order,	1,094,067	75	
Accounts current of the Treasury,	131,254,798	47	
Various accounts current,	37,636,175	35	
Receipts payable at sight,	2,191,500	0	
Capital of the Bank,	67,900,000	0	
Reserve,	10,000,000	0	
House and furniture,	4,000,000	0	
Dividends payable,	566,527	75	
Draughts of the branch banks,	282,701	29	
Sundry accounts current,	3,991,959	9	
	482,666,529	68	
CREDITOR.			
Cash on hand,	205,377,260	98	
Bills out for collection,	1,229,575	46	
Commercial bills discounted,	150,674,068	18	
Advanced upon deposit of ingots,	3,741,300	0	
Advanced upon deposit of public securities,	20,971,604	26	
Accounts current debtor,	16,323,531	13	
Capital of branch banks,	20,000,000	0	
Reserve,	10,000,000	0	
Vested in public securities,	50,205,486	40	
Hotel and furniture of the bank,	4,000,000	0	
Sundry credits,	143,703	23	
	482,666,529	68	
OPERATIONS REALIZED.			
Commercial bills discounted,	251,285,000	0	
Interest of cash advanced on a deposit of bullion,	8,015,600	0	

Ditto on public securities,	16,466,300	0
Ditto on treasury bonds,	1,754,600	0
Amount received from sundry accounts current,	1,002,966,400	0
Amount paid ditto,	1,000,102,100	0
Received from the treasury,	100,425,800	0
Paid ditto,	111,476,000	0
Received in cash,	79,626,000	0
Ditto in bills of exchange,	494,584,500	0
Paid in cash,	97,332,500	0
Ditto in bills,	525,998,500	0
Certified by the Governor of the Bank, J. E. GAUTIER.		

PARIS, November 10. THE POPULATION OF FRANCE. The following is a statistical and official table of the population of France since the year 1700:

1700,	19,669,320	1820,	30,461,875
1762,	21,769,163	1826,	31,858,937
1784,	24,800,000	1831,	32,569,223
1789,	25,065,883	1836,	33,540,910
1802,	27,349,003	1842,	34,194,875
1806,	29,107,425		

The population of Paris, according to the census of 1841, amounts to 912,330; and, if the troops of the garrison and strangers are added, to 1,035,000.

MARRIED WOMEN IN PARIS. The following statistic of the ages of the 121,525 women married in Paris in the course of the last eighteen years is given by one of the French journals as having been verified by the registers of the *Etat Civil*. Between 12 and 15 years old there were 814; at 16 years, 1,920; at 17 years, 3,959; at 18 years, 5,816; at 19 years, 6,957; at 20 years, 7,610; at 21 years, 8,047; at 22 or 23, between 7,000 and 8,000; at 24 or 25, upwards of 6,000; but at 26, 27, and 28, they scarcely exceed 5,000. This decreasing progression goes on, so that up to 31 years there were only 3,651; thence to 41 years, 1,798; at 42 years, 1,015; at 48 years, 586; at 56 years, 226; at 60 years, 126; and during the eighteen years there were 578 marriages of women aged 61 years and upwards. Another account shows that out of 1,000,000 married in Paris, 521,653, being more than one half, were married before the commencement of their 20th year.

PARIS, October 28. FRENCH CAVALRY. The French cavalry, according to the account of M. F. Lenfant in an interesting memoir, loses more horses than that of any other nation. The service of their troop-horses seldom exceeds three years, and every year, instead of having

to purchase 5,000, the Government is obliged to buy 8,400. In France there are 2,500,000 horses of all kinds, yet in the 200,000 foaled every year, there is not a sufficient number to supply the 20,000 required for remounting the cavalry. Between 1823 and the end of 1840, not less than 346,000 horses have been imported, at an annual expense of between 13,000,000 francs and 14,000,000 francs. In 1819 the Duke d'Escars declared, in the name of the Royal Breeding Stud Commission, that 4,000 choice stallions were required to regenerate the breed of French horses. There are at present only 500 thoroughbred stallions in the breeding-studs, and 177 in the possession of farmers. M. Lenfant considers that 1,500 ought to be purchased, and 6,000 or 8,000 good brood mares.

PARIS, October 29. IMPROVEMENT IN FIRE-ARMS. An experiment was made at Vincennes on Wednesday, the 19th inst., in the presence of the Duke de Montpensier and of General Rostolan, as to the relative merits of the common musket used by the infantry of the line and the improved carbine of the Chasseurs. The musket was fired by some of the best marksmen of the 68th regiment of the line, but their address was impotent against the great superiority of the carbine. In a series of experiments, which lasted six hours, the men of the 68th placed seven balls out of 200 shots in the target at 400 yards' distance, whilst the Chasseurs placed ten times the number of balls in the same number of shots. The Chasseurs afterwards placed 33 balls out of 200 in the target at 500 yards' distance, and 25 at 600 yards. When it is considered that 500 yards is the usual distance at which field-pieces are placed from the object to be reached, and 600 yards that of a 24-pounder, it cannot be denied but that a complete revolution is about to be made in infantry muskets in consequence of the adoption of M. Delvigne's invention.

ALEXANDRIA, (Egypt), October 6. On the 29th ult. the Egyptian fleet came into port again, after a very insignificant cruise of about 27 days just off the coast. The weather during that time was constantly fine and calm, but, notwithstanding, several of the ships could not have stood out many more days, owing to their very leaky state. Ibrahim Pasha is gone to Cairo, and Mehemet Ali himself, who has again taken up his residence on the

banks of the canal, intends proceeding to that capital very shortly. There have been some very severe losses in the Delta, caused by the breaking of dykes which had been raised to keep in the waters; in one place, upwards of fifty villages were entirely inundated, and the inhabitants reduced in consequence to hopeless misery. The mortality amongst oxen does not seem to subside in the least; in many places, where no animals whatever can be obtained, women and boys are made to turn the water wheels in their stead. Owing to the repeated applications of Messrs. Briggs and Co., the Government has finally promised to begin at once to clear and level the road in the desert between Suez and Cairo. By this the journey will be rendered much less fatiguing, and the distance will also be shortened. Some people say, that a coal mine has been discovered in the vicinity of Suez; should this be true, and the vein be of good quality, it will prove a most fortunate and valuable acquisition for the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company. The nature of the Arabian soil, however, precludes all hope of the mine being either a good or an extensive one. The plague seems to have determined upon giving us a little respite this year, and up to to-day no cases have been mentioned for the last two months. The Pacha has begun to erect a line of telegraphs on a desert road between Suez and Cairo, so that in two or three months' time the arrival of the Bombay steamer at Suez will be known at Alexandria a few hours after it takes place.

CONSTANTINOPLE, October 7. The Egyptian steamer Boulak arrived on the 30th from Alexandria, having on board Sami Pasha, Envoy Extraordinary of Mehemet Ali, whose unexpected return had caused a lively sensation in the Turkish capital. He was, however, supposed to have been intrusted with no other mission than that of thanking the Sultan in the name of Mehemet Ali for the high honor he had conferred upon him by elevating him to the dignity of Grand Vizier, and of imploring again the pardon of his Highness in favor of Ahmed Ferzi Pasha, the ex-Capitan Pasha and commander of the Imperial fleet.

The feast of the Ramazan commenced on the 4th, at 8 o'clock in the evening, by the sudden illumination of all the mosques of Constantinople.

Two Austrian engineers had entered

the service of the Sultan, and were to be employed in directing the works of a rich coal mine near Heraclea.

EDINBURGH, Oct 13. **ELECTRO MAGNETIC LOCOMOTIVE.** Under the patronage of the directors of the Edinburgh and Glasgow Railway Co., Mr. Davidson, philosophical instrument maker, has been employed in a series of experiments as to the practicability of applying electro-magnetism for propelling trains along the line of a railway. The experiments having succeeded so far, a machine containing six powerful batteries, huge magnetic coils, and three large magnets fastened on each of two revolving cylinders, through which pass the axles of the driving wheels, has been constructed; and on Saturday last its motive capabilities were tested in one of the carriage sheds belonging to the Railway Company, in presence of several of the directors. The ponderous machine, weighing between five and six tons, was instantly set in motion on the immersion of the metallic plates into the troughs containing a solution of sulphuric acid. One curious phenomenon connected with the motion of this new and ingenious instrument, was the extent and brilliancy of the repeated electric flashes which accompanied the action of the machinery. The motion produced, though not rapid, was such as clearly to establish the principle, that this agent is adapted to the purpose of locomotion; and it is only justice to the inventor to add, that he expressed himself sanguine in his being able to obviate many of the difficulties which yet stand in the way of its being adopted in lieu of the steam locomotives now in use. All present expressed themselves satisfied with the results of this, the first experiment on the subject on a large scale. The result, however, like that of the many ingenious applications of electro-magnetism previously made, failed to demonstrate the practicability of accumulating such a degree of power as can be made available for any important purpose.

RIGA, October 20. According to letters from St. Petersburg, the fire at Perm was extremely disastrous. Almost every house was destroyed. The situation of the town is on the left of the Kama. It was but of recent construction, but has ever since it was built been gradually increasing. The population amounted to about six thousand, and a company was established there for the management of

the mines. There were also two copper foundries. A very strict investigation has commenced relative to the destruction of Kasan, which it is impossible to attribute to accident, as there had been no less than seven attempts to set fire to the town at different points.

ST. PETERSBURGH, November 4. On the proposal of M. Alferovsky, mayor of the city of St. Petersburg, the merchants have subscribed the sum of fifteen thousand silver roubles for the benefit of the sufferers by the fire at Kasan, which has been sent free of expense to that city. The Northern Bee announces that a very important improvement has just been introduced at St. Petersburg in the manufacture of lamp gas. This improvement consists in simplifying the apparatus, by means of which this manufacture, which was a very complex and dangerous operation, is rendered so simple, that a man of ordinary understanding may learn it in six hours, without being exposed to the slightest dangers. The following, according to this paper, are the advantages of this new process, the details of which it does not give: "The gas having been extracted from coals, oil, tar, tallow, and all fat and oleaginous substances, the price of the gas is diminished by one-half. The execution of the apparatus on a large scale is very cheap. It is not necessary to compress the gas, nor is there any steam engine required to manufacture it. With the old apparatus it took six hours and a half to produce the same quantity of gas as the new apparatus produces in half an hour. The work of four men on the new plan is equal to that of forty on the old one; lastly, the quantity of lime necessary to purify the gas is very inconsiderable." It is hoped we may have further details of this discovery.

BOULOGNE, November 13. **WRECK OF AN EAST INDIA MERCHANT SHIP.** It is our painful duty to record this day the shipwreck of the *Reliance*, 1,550 tons, Captain Thomas Green, from China, off Merlimont, on Saturday morning. It would seem, from the wind being fair, that they could never have seen land, for the vessel struck about 2 o'clock, A. M. The scene of confusion and horror on board, at the moment, we understand, was frightful. With great difficulty could any orders be got executed, but so soon as a little self-possession was obtained, signals of distress were fired until daylight. But there was no means of affording the least assistance. When day



broke, and they saw the desolate and wild coast before them, the boats were hoisted out. The long-boat was immediately swamped, the others were over-crowded, and went down shortly after leaving the vessel's side; the rest were swept from the deck into eternity! We regret to say, that out of 35 Lascars and 85 white persons on board, only 3 of the former and 4 of the latter reached the shore in safety. Of the Englishmen saved, one is the carpenter, a young man. The captain stuck to the vessel to the last; he went down close to the carpenter, who was swimming towards the shore. Many of the bodies were washed to land, among others, a lascar who showed symptoms of life, and to whom every attention was paid by a surgeon, who hastened to the spot; but all his efforts to restore animation were in vain. We understand the scene on the sandy beach was extraordinary from the number of boxes of tea that were cast there when the ship broke up. They seemed so many rocks studding the shore. It was just past low water when she struck.

At day light the sea was flowing fast, and at 10 o'clock she was a perfect wreck. Out of 27,000 boxes of tea on board, only 1,356 have been yet saved, and these are all more or less damaged. The captain and the fourth mate are among the bodies washed on shore. Captain Tucker, R. N., late of the *Isis*, and who embarked at St. Helena, is among the six passengers drowned, none of whose bodies have been yet discovered. The seamen saved are R. Dixon, carpenter; W. O'Neil, of Kingston, Ireland; Anderson, a Norwegian; and Charles Batts, of Dantzic.

#### DOMESTIC.

DOVER, (N. H.) September 22. Last night died in this town the Hon. Jeremiah Smith, until recently of Exeter, in the 53d year of his age. He was one of the most distinguished men whom the state has produced, for his learning and talents, for his great uprightness and purity of character, his engaging manners, powers of conversation, and the devotion of his talents and labors to the public service. He was born in Peterborough, N. H., and was graduated at Rutgers College, N. J. in 1780. Soon after the close of the war, he entered the profession of the law, in which he became distinguished. He was a member of the Congress of the United States during the last six years of Wash-

ington's administration, and during the first session of the fifth Congress. In July, 1797, he was appointed Attorney of the United States for the district of New Hampshire, when he resigned his seat in Congress. In February, 1801, he was appointed one of the judges of the Circuit Court of the United States for the First Circuit, and when the law by which that court was established was repealed, he was appointed Chief Justice of the Superior Court of N. Hampshire, his associates on the bench of that court being Timothy Farrar, Paine Wingate, and Arthur Livermore. Two of these judges still survive, Farrar in the 96th year of his age, and Livermore 78. Judge Wingate died at Stratham, in March, 1838, in the 99th year of his age, leaving a widow who still survives, having entered her 101st year. Judge Smith continued in the office of Chief Justice with distinguished usefulness until the year 1809, when he was chosen governor of the state, which office he held one year only. In 1813, on a new organization of the courts, he was again placed at the head of the Supreme Judicial Court, which office he held until 1816, when on the accession to power of the Democratic party, the court was abolished, and a new judiciary system was substituted. From this time Judge Smith remained in private life, engaged in literary studies, and the occasional practice of his profession. He continued to reside at Exeter until 1841, when he removed to Dover, the residence of his wife's connexions. He retained his faculties, and his powers of entertaining conversation, in his advanced years; and closed his days in the full enjoyment of the esteem of all those, with whom he had been associated in the duties of his active life.

Boston, September 30. Mr. Webster was received by the citizens of Boston in Faneuil Hall, and the Mayor made an address, congratulating him on the able and successful discharge of his official duties, and particularly on the successful close of his negotiations with Great Britain. Mr. Webster replied in a speech of an hour and a half in length, which was applauded with great enthusiasm by a very crowded audience. The speech was published in the papers of the succeeding day.

Boston, October 3. The Phoenix Bank in Charlestown stopped payment, and its bills were immediately discredited. The Bank Commissioners, on examination applied to the Chief Justice for an injunc-

tion, which on hearing was granted, and receivers were appointed to take charge of its assets, for the benefit of the creditors of the bank. The Bank Commissioners published a report, from which it appears that more than the whole capital, \$300,000, had been lost through the failure of Stanley, Reed & Co., to whom loans had been fraudulently made by the President, without the knowledge of the directors. The debts of the Bank for notes in circulation, deposits, &c. amount to \$392,774, to meet which it holds paper esteemed good amounting to \$256,511, besides the obligations of Stanley, Reed & Co., \$344,556, and other paper, considered part bad or doubtful, \$85,690.

BOSTON, October 5. The steamer Columbia arrived at half-past four o'clock, A. M., in 13 1-2 days from Liverpool. She brought news of the arrival out of the Britannia, September 14, in 12 1-2 days from Boston.

BOSTON, November 22. EASTERN RAILROAD TO PORTLAND. The Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth Railroad was opened for public travel this day. The opening of this important work extends the line of the Eastern Railroad, from Boston to Portland, a distance of one hundred and four miles. This is the exact length of the route in the opposite direction, over the two railroads which form the line to Norwich.

This important and difficult work has been completed, including all the preliminary arrangements, within the period of two years. The subscription to the stock was opened November 28, 1840, the company was organized December 25, following; and the succeeding winter was occupied in making surveys of the route. The contracts were made in April, 1841, and the first ground was broken May 25. The length of the work now completed is 51 miles. It had some serious obstacles to encounter, particularly in several deep cuts through hard clay, and some heavy embankments over deep quicksands, where it was difficult to find a bottom. These obstacles have been overcome by perseverance, and in a shorter period than could have been expected, the whole work having been accomplished in eighteen months. The road is formed of a heavy T rail, and we doubt not laid in a workmanlike and substantial manner. We learn that the Directors propose to pass over the road for the first time on Monday.

Although the railroad now completed

is built by a distinct company, from that which owns the Eastern Railroad of this State and New Hampshire, it is connected with the latter road in the working, and with it will form a continuous line of communication from Boston to Berwick, Wells, Kennebunk, Saco, and Portland. The train leaving Boston at noon, will reach Portland at half-past five.

TRENTON, October 25. The legislature of New Jersey met at this place, all the members of both Houses being present. William Chetwood of Essex, a Whig, was chosen Vice-President of the Council, by a vote of 9 to 7, and Charles G. McChesney was unanimously re-elected Secretary of the Council. Samuel B. Halsey, of Morris, a Whig, was elected Speaker of the Assembly by a vote of 32 to 25, and Alexander G. Galtel was chosen Clerk.

NEW HAVEN, October 25. The legislature of Connecticut met at this place in extra session, for the purpose of districting the state for the choice of Representatives to Congress, and for other purposes. Governor Cleveland, on the same day, addressed a message to the two Houses. On the following day, a bill was reported in the House, to divide the state into four districts, composed as follows: 1st, Hartford and Tolland counties, population 73,620; 2d, New Haven and Middlesex, 73,568; 3d, New London and Windham, 72,572; 4th, Litchfield and Fairfield, 90,371. Total population, 310,131. Average of each district, 77,533.

MONTPELIER, (Vermont,) October 26. The legislature on the 21st inst. made choice of Hon. William Upham, of Montpelier, to be Senator in Congress for the term commencing on the 4th of March next. The vote was in the Senate 16 for Mr. Upham, and 14 for Hon. Wm. C. Bradley; and in the House, for Mr. Upham 122, Mr. Bradley 100, and 6 scattering. This day the two Houses proceeded to make choice of a Senator to supply the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Judge Prentiss, and Hon. Samuel C. Crafts was chosen. The votes were in the Senate for Mr. Crafts 16, Mr. Bradley 14; and in the House for Mr. Crafts 117, Mr. Bradley 93, and 10 scattering.

HURON, (Michigan,) November 6. The steamboat Vermilion was burned to the water's edge, having taken fire just after her arrival at this place from Detroit, (Huron is at the head of Lake Erie.) The passengers were asleep in their berths, and before they could gain the wharf, the

fastenings of the boat burned off, and she drifted into the lake. In consequence, four or five lives were lost. Those who escaped saved nothing. The fire was caused by the accidental overthrow of a keg of turpentine near the furnace.

GALE ON THE LAKES, November 17, 18, 19. A disastrous gale, attended with great loss of property and of life, swept the lakes Michigan, Huron, and Erie. Winter set in with great severity at the same time.

NEW YORK, November 18. This was the day appointed for the execution of John C. Colt, for the murder of Mr. Samuel Adams. Several petitions for reprieve and pardon had been transmitted to Governor Seward, all of which he had firmly denied. The greatest excitement was observed in the vicinity of the prison yard, where the execution was to take place.

The hour appointed for the execution was four o'clock, P. M.; but when the sheriff went to the cell of the prisoner to lead him to the place of execution, it was found that he had committed suicide, by stabbing himself with a knife, which he had been permitted to have among his utensils for writing. At the moment that this fact was announced, it was discovered that the cupola of the prison was on fire, and this circumstance at once gave rise to a suspicion, that an attempt had been made for the escape of the prisoner, with the connivance of the officers. A coroner's jury, however, which was at once called, removed all doubts as to the transaction. Some excitement was at first aroused among the crowds of people assembled, but it subsided on the promulgation of the report of the official proceedings.

RHODE ISLAND, November 21, 22, 23. The people of this State, competent to vote under the Constitution recently drafted, gave in their votes on the question of the ratification of that instrument. It was accepted as the constitution of the State; more than seven thousand votes being given in its favor, and not fifty against it. The friends of Mr. Dorr, and of what is called the people's constitution, declined voting, so that there was no organized opposition.

This constitution was drawn up by the convention chosen for that purpose, under act of the Legislature of June 22, (see Mon. Chron. p. 286.) The Dorr party had declined to vote for delegates to it. The convention closed its labors on the

5th inst. The new constitution provides for a wide extension of the suffrage, excluding only those persons who have not established a satisfactory residence in the State. The question on the admission of blacks to vote, was voted on separately by the people, and the admission was granted by a large majority. The new constitution will go into effect on the 1st Tuesday in May next.

### ELECTIONS.

BALTIMORE, Oct. 5. The election in the State of Maryland for the choice of part of the Senate, and members of the House of Delegates was held. The result was the choice of 4 Whig and 3 Democratic Senators, 9 Whigs and 5 Democrats holding over from previous elections, and making a Senate of 13 Whigs and 8 Democrats. Of the delegates chosen, 35 are Whigs, and 46 Democrats, making a democratic majority in joint ballot.

PHILADELPHIA, October 11. The election for the choice of Representatives, and a part of the members of the Senate, was held throughout the State of Pennsylvania. It resulted in the choice of a decided majority of democratic members.

COLUMBUS, (Ohio,) October 11. The election in Ohio was held on this day. Wilson Shannon, the Democratic candidate, was chosen by a plurality of votes, over Thomas Corwin, the present incumbent. The votes, omitting those of Butler, Montgomery, Highland, and Paulding counties, from which there were no official returns, were for Shannon, 119,703; Corwin, 117,911; Leicester King, the candidate of the Abolitionists, 5,172; and scattering, 40. The political character of the members elect of the two branches of the Legislature, is, in the Senate, Democratic 22, Whig 14; in the House of Representatives, Democratic 42, Whig 30.

TRENTON, October 12. The annual election was held throughout New Jersey, yesterday, and to-day. The result was the choice of 10 Whigs and 8 Democrats to the Council, and 32 Whigs and 26 Democrats to the Assembly.

DELAWARE, November 7th. The election of a Member of Congress and State Legislature took place. The Hon. Geo. B. Rodney, the Whig candidate for Representative in Congress, was reelected by a majority of 19 votes over Mr. Jones, the democratic candidate. The new State Senate consists of 7 Whigs to 2 Demo

crats; the House of 14 Whigs to 9 Democrats. The Senate is chosen for four years, the House for two.

NEW YORK, November 8th. The election in this State for officers of the State Government and Members of Congress took place. Mr. Bouck, the Democratic candidate, was elected by a majority of 21,982 over Mr. Bradish, the Whig candidate; 24 Democrats and 10 Whigs were elected Representatives in Congress. The Senate, of which one fourth is chosen every year, consists of 22 Democrats and 10 Whigs, the House of 95 Democrats and 33 Whigs. The political character of the Legislature was the same last year. Governor Seward, chosen two years since, was a Whig. By the constitution of this State the Governor is chosen every two years; the House of Representatives is renewed annually.

The following gentlemen were chosen Representatives in Congress, for the several districts indicated by the numbers prefixed to their names. Those whose names are in italics, are Whigs.

- No. 1. . . . Selah B. Strong.
- 2. . . . Henry C. Murphy.
- 3. . . . *J. Phillips Phoenix.*
- 4. . . . William B. MacLay.
- 5. . . . Moses G. Leonard.
- 6. . . . *Hamilton Fish.*
- 7. . . . Joseph H. Anderson.
- 8. . . . Richard D. Davis.
- 9. . . . James G. Clinton.
- 10. . . . Jeremiah Russell.
- 11. . . . Zadock Pratt.
- 12. . . . David L. Seymour.
- 13. . . . *Daniel D. Barnard.*
- 14. . . . *Charles Rogers.*
- 15. . . . Lemuel Stetson.
- 16. . . . Chesselden Ellis.
- 17. . . . Charles S. Benton.
- 18. . . . Preston King.
- 19. . . . Orville Hungerford.
- 20. . . . Samuel Beardsley.
- 21. . . . Jeremiah E. Carey.
- 22. . . . Smith M. Purdy.
- 23. . . . Orville Robinson.
- 24. . . . Horace Wheaton.
- 25. . . . George Rathbun.
- 26. . . . Amasa Dana.
- 27. . . . Byram Green.
- 28. . . . *Thomas J. Paterson.*
- 29. . . . *Charles H. Carroll.*
- 30. . . . William S. Hubbell.
- 31. . . . *Asher Tyler.*

No. 32. . . . *William A. Moseley.*

33. . . . *Albert Smith.*

34. . . . *Washington Hunt.*

MICHIGAN, November 8th. The annual election of State Representatives took place. The Democratic party prevailed, as in last year, by a large majority.

MASSACHUSETTS, November 14. The election of the officers of the State Government, and of Representatives in Congress, took place. No choice of Governor was made by the people. Governor Morton, the Democratic candidate, received about 56,590 votes, Governor Davis about 54,876, and other persons 5,656. Mr. Sewall, the candidate of the "Liberty party," received most of the scattering votes. Four Members of Congress only were chosen, of whom three are Whigs, namely, Mr. Winthrop in the 1st district, Mr. Adams in the 8th, and Mr. Burnell in the 10th, and one Democrat, namely, Mr. Williams, in the 9th district. Of Senators, 25 only are chosen by the people, namely, 10 Whigs and 14 Democrats. The Whigs are 5 in Suffolk, 2 in Hampshire, 2 in Barnstable, and 1 in Nantucket; Democrats, 6 in Middlesex, 2 in Hampden, 2 in Berkshire, 1 in Norfolk, (there being 2 vacancies in that county,) and 3 in Bristol. There are accordingly, as appears from official report, 16 vacancies, namely, in Essex 5, Worcester 5, Franklin 2, Norfolk 2, and Plymouth 2. Nearly a hundred towns, in consequence of the opposition of the abolitionists to both the other parties, made no choice of Representatives. In most of these towns, second meetings were held on the 28th, in accordance with the constitutional provision. In a number of these towns there was still no choice made, and they remain unrepresented for the year. It is impossible to speak with certainty of the result before the legislature meets. There seems to be a small Whig majority in the House. On the two houses of the legislature, in convention, devolves the filling of the vacancies in the Senate. The election of Governor is to be made by the selection in the first instance by the House of Representatives of two candidates from the four who received the greatest number of the votes of the people, and from the two candidates so selected, the Senate will elect the Governor.